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Modern Hebrew in American Colleges and Universities

IN AN article entitled, "The Teaching of Hebrew in American Universities,"¹ the writer discussed the development of the study of Hebrew from the early colonial days to 1946. The present article deals with more data brought out in a recent study² on the subject.

The book reveals that out of 1,025 colleges and universities, 206 or 20% teach Hebrew. A total of 7,206 students are enrolled in 415 courses taught in the 206 schools. 169 of these schools including 44 colleges, 39 universities, 86 theological schools, offer courses in Hebrew as an ancient tongue, in which they stress the minute details of grammar and the technical language aspect, as if Hebrew had not progressed beyond the Biblical stage, and had no present or future. Fully 75% of the 415 courses are based on the classical approach. Some 3,802 students are enrolled in these classes. There is a visible decline in interest in this type of study, which is reflected in the fact that at least 12 schools have indicated that they are suffering from a gradual decline in student enrollment. The attempts made by Weingreen, Yates, Seller and others to modernize texts and instruction and improve on Davidson and the other Hebrew textbooks commonly used in these Semitic departments, have proved to be of little avail.

A. THE NEW YORK UNIVERSITY PATTERN

It was only 16 years ago in 1934 that a new trend was effected in the teaching of Hebrew as a modern language in colleges and universities. This was begun in 1934 when a non-credit course in Modern Hebrew was introduced in the Division of General Education at New York University at the initiative of the writer. The effort proved to be rewarding both because it blazed a new trail in the teaching of Hebrew in the colleges and universities, and provided an added stimulus for the already expanding Hebrew courses in the secondary schools in New York City.

The success of the experiment in the Division of General Education aided in the introduction of Hebrew as an accredited subject of instruction in the University's School of Education in 1937, which culminated in the establishment in 1944 of the first Chair of Hebrew Culture and Education

¹ The *Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XXX, #8, Dec. 1946.

² Katsh, A. I., *Hebrew Language, Literature and Culture in American Colleges and Universities*, Payne Educational Sociology Foundation, (N. Y.) 1950.

in any teachers' college in the country. The Chair enables students at the School of Education to major and minor in Hebrew, either as a matter of professional or cultural interest, leading to a bachelor's, master's and doctor's degree in any phase of Jewish culture and education. Two undergraduate and graduate curricula are offered in the division; one is a pedagogic curriculum designed to prepare students to teach Hebrew in the public high schools and colleges; another, a cultural course, is intended to equip students with a general Jewish cultural background which may prove helpful to a worker in the social service, center, or related fields. The courses also provide interested students from any branch of the University with a better understanding and appreciation of Judaism and Jewish life.

An annual Summer Workshop in Modern Israel's Life and Culture, held in Israel, was inaugurated in 1949 and repeated in 1950 in cooperation with the Katznelson Institute of Higher Learning in Kfar Saba, Israel. This Workshop transplanted in its natural setting has been attended by students and teachers from over fifty colleges and universities and provides an opportunity for the improvement of facility in the use of the Hebrew language as well as an opportunity to familiarize oneself with the culture and history of the new state.

B. PATTERN OF COURSES IN OTHER INSTITUTIONS

In response to the demands of New York City high school students desiring to continue their study of Hebrew, Brooklyn College invited Professor Abraham Halkin to join its faculty in 1938. The Hebrew courses which were begun by Dr. Halkin and now headed by Professor R. Wallenrod developed rapidly and now show an enrollment of over 600 in both the day and evening sessions. Hunter College followed suit in 1940 with the appointment of Professor Israel Efros to its faculty. The situation in Hunter College as far as enrollment and growth of the Hebrew courses is very encouraging. Brooklyn and Hunter Colleges offer courses enabling undergraduate and graduate students to major in modern Hebrew. In 1948, the City College of New York introduced accredited courses in Hebrew into its curriculum. Dr. A. Halkin is in charge of the new program.

The creation of the State of Israel has been a spur to the inclusion of courses in Hebrew in a number of institutions. The fact that Hebrew now assumes the role of a language of an internationally recognized foreign State has been an added impetus to its recognition in American circles. Hebrew gained in prestige as a commercial language, which might also have a place in government service. In 1948, Temple University established in its undergraduate school the Abraham Ellis Chair of Hebrew Culture and Education modelled largely after that of New York University. This chair is occupied by Dr. Joseph Levitsky. Hebraic studies have also been introduced into the New School for Social Research, Brandeis University, and

Gannon College. They are directed by Professors M. Perlmann, Sh. Mare-noff, and A. Shoulson respectively. Among the institutions which initiated their courses after the establishment of the Jewish State are the following universities: Alabama, Butler, Miami, Omaha, Rutgers and Western Reserve.

Some institutions include courses in Hebrew taught by the Directors of the Hillel Foundations. The courses are subject to regular university discipline, and are fully accredited. Among the institutions following this pattern are the following universities and colleges: Alabama, Indiana University, Rutgers in New Brunswick, Pennsylvania State College, University of Illinois, University of Vermont, University of Texas, University of Miami, University of Maryland, and State University of Iowa. The State University of Iowa and Vanderbilt University have Hillel professorships dealing with Judaism and Judaic lore, headed by Dr. Judah Goldin and Rabbi Samuel Sandmel, respectively.

In another group of schools, the Directors of Jewish educational agencies have been teaching a course or two in Hebrew in local collegiate institutions. This is the case in the Cleveland College of Western Reserve University, the University of Houston, in the University of Miami, Wayne University, University of Omaha and at Rutgers in Newark, New Jersey.

A number of institutions do not offer instruction in Hebrew themselves but accredit courses taught at local theological seminaries or at a college of Jewish study. Roosevelt College recognizes a course in Hebrew given at the local College of Jewish Studies. Similarly, the University of Cincinnati accredits twelve points of study at the Hebrew Union College. The Universities of Pittsburgh and Duquesne have arrangements with the Hebrew Institute of Pittsburgh to accredit several courses offered at the latter institution. The University of Washington, Queens College, City College of New York, Brooklyn College and Washington University have been teaching Hebrew in their adult education divisions. In some schools, these courses are also recognized for the liberal arts degree. In New York, the Parsons School of Design has been accrediting courses in Modern Hebrew taken at New York University. The University of Wisconsin has also been giving a two-year course in Modern Hebrew, taught by Professor A. Shudofsky.

Columbia and Harvard have endowed Professorships dealing with various phases of Jewish learning. At Columbia, Professor Salo W. Baron occupies the Nathan J. Miller Chair of Jewish History, Literature and Institutions. The University has announced this year a Center of Israeli Studies. Its purpose is to prepare "a limited number of well-qualified American and other students to understand Israel and its people, both in its Near Eastern setting and in its historical connection with the Jewish people and with their religion and culture in other countries." At Harvard, Professor Harry A. Wolfson is the incumbent of the Lucius N. Littauer

Chair of Jewish History and Philosophy. At Johns Hopkins, Dr. Samuel Rosenblatt lectures in courses maintained by the local Jewish community on Modern Hebrew Literature and Talmudic lore. The same is true with the University of Chicago, The Bible College of Missouri and several other schools.

In addition to the rabbinical seminaries, the Hebrew teacher-training institutions and the Colleges of Jewish Studies in the various communities, Dropsie College and Yeshiva University offer extensive programs for graduate study in the Hebrew Language, Culture and in Jewish Education. The last two institutions and four Jewish Theological schools have been included in the author's study among 9 colleges, 24 universities, and 4 theological schools teaching modern Hebrew. These 37 schools offer a total of 110 courses in modern Hebrew and together they have an enrollment of 3,404 students. It appears that the modern approach to the study of Hebrew is definitely gaining ground.

ABRAHAM I. KATSH

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A Semantic Study of Binary Adverbs in Japanese

ONE type of Japanese adverbs is formed by the repetition of one-, two-, or (rarely) three-syllable words or elements. Such compounds are *potapota*¹ 'in drips,'² *so(o)so(o)* 'promptly,' *charancharan* 'dingdong' and the like. The collection on which this paper is based numbers about five hundred such compounds including practically all now in use. The usage is very old, examples being found in the earliest Japanese texts (8th century A.D.); some were borrowed from Chinese.

The elements of these doubled words are either nouns, e.g. *iro* 'color,' *iroiro* 'various'; adjective stems, e.g. *chikai* 'near,' *chikajika* 'in the near future'; or the present tense of verbs, e.g. *miru* 'see,' *mirumiru* 'instantly.' Many of these elements are not in common use as single words with specific meaning. Many cases, however, are merely aggregates of sound that have never, so far as known, been used as single words with specific meaning, e.g. *potapota* and *charancharan* as cited above. In the case of nouns this doubling conveys in some instances the idea of plurality, e.g. *kono kata* 'this person,' *kono katagata* 'these persons.' Doubled adjective stems also occur with the suffix *-shii* as adjectives, e.g. *naganagashii hanashi* 'a lengthy story.' With a following *no* 'of,' they are employed as modifiers of substantives, e.g. *chikajika no yasumi* 'coming holidays.' However, this paper is concerned only with the adverbial use of such compounds. Such compounds in their adverbial use are often found with an appended particle, *ni* or *to*, but are also often used without a particle, e.g. *uchiuchi (ni)* 'privately,' *go(o)go(o) (to)* 'roaringly,' *fuwafuwa (to)* 'buoyantly,' *bishibishi (to)* 'ruthlessly' and *yokuyoku (to)* 'prudently.'

In studying these words our first task was to classify them on the basis of their meaning. Since the meaning of every word is complex, each word is classified on the basis of the dominant element of its meaning. For instance, an element of feeling (emotion) enters into every word, but in our material some eighty words occur in which the emotional element is dominant.

¹ Japanese syllables consist either of a single vowel or of a consonant followed by a vowel. The Japanese consonants are pronounced approximately the same as in English. The vowels are pronounced as follows: *a* as in *father*; *i* as in *sit*; *u* as in *boot*; *e* as in *met*; *o* as in *boat*. The vowels may be pronounced either short or long. A long vowel has about twice the duration of a short vowel. In this article long vowels are romanized as *a(a)*, *i(i)*, *u(u)*, *ei* and *o(o)*.

² In the interest of consistency English translations are usually given in the form of adverbs or adverbial phrases even though the expressions are at times awkward.

The doublets represent a very wide range of meaning. Classifying them on this basis, we discover that more than half of them represent sensory perceptions (auditory, visual, tactual, kinesthesia and so forth). The range of meaning is wide, but with a few exceptions, they may be classified under eighteen rubrics. In fact 89% of the words fall into ten of these categories, but these ten categories, as a matter of fact, cover only six broader ones as shown by the table on the following page.

The following examples illustrate the usage of some of the doublets cited on the table.

Hearing:

<i>Karakara (to) warau.</i>	'He laughs loudly (with the sound <i>karakara</i>).'
<i>Kaze ga hyu(u)hyu(u) (to) fuite iru.</i>	'The wind is blowing hard (with the sound <i>hyu(u)hyu(u)</i>).'

Sight:

<i>Hi ga giragira (to) tette iru.</i>	'The sun is shining brightly.'
<i>Kyorokyoroto mite iru.</i>	'He is looking around with a startled look.'

Touch:

<i>Jikujiku (to) ame ga futte iru.</i>	'The rain is drizzling.'
<i>Nori ga betabeta (to) tsuku.</i>	'The glue clings stickily.'

Temporal ideas:

<i>Kinkin ni ukagaimasu.</i>	'I'll call on you in the near future.'
<i>Sutasuta (to) aruite iru.</i>	'He is pacing along hurriedly.'

Spatial ideas:

<i>Kiregire (ni) natta.</i>	'It broke into pieces.'
<i>Zozoro (to) hito ga aruite iru.</i>	'The people are walking in a continuous stream.'
<i>Buruburu (to) furueta.</i>	'He trembled violently.'
<i>Yoboyobo (to) aruite iru.</i>	'He is walking staggeringly.'

Quantitative ideas:

<i>Hotohoto (to) tsukareta.</i>	'He is completely exhausted.'
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Mental states:

<i>Tsukuzuku (to) kangaeta.</i>	'He thought intensely.'
<i>Kotsukotsu (to) benkyo(o)-shite iru.</i>	'He is studying laboriously.'

From the table it appears that 85% of all the cases fall into the categories of specific sensory impressions, strong emotions and ideas of time and space. What is even more significant is that more than 200 of the 500 odd cases represent the two categories of hearing (which is, of course, to be expected) and emotion. A considerable number of those representing sensation of hearing are onomatopoeic. The large number of emotional doublets (82 in all) is explained in part by the fact that elements of feeling enter into all our experiences.

CLASSIFICATION OF JAPANESE BINARY ADVERBS

Meaning	Number		Examples
Sensory ideas:			
Hearing	122		<i>baribari</i> 'with a sound like tearing paper' <i>garagara</i> 'rattlingly' <i>hyu(u)hyu(u)</i> 'whizzingly' <i>karakara</i> 'with a ringing laugh'
Sight	20		<i>giragira</i> 'glitteringly' <i>jirajiro</i> 'staringly' <i>kyorokyoro</i> 'with a startled look' <i>ariari</i> 'clearly visible'
Touch	22		<i>betabeta</i> 'stickily' <i>jikujiku</i> 'damply' <i>nurunuru</i> 'slipperily' <i>araara</i> 'roughly'
Others ³	19		
	183	36%	
Emotion:	82	16.2%	<i>akiaki</i> 'wearily' <i>gamigami</i> 'in an ill-tempered manner' <i>iyaiya</i> 'reluctantly' <i>bikubiku</i> 'timidly'
Temporal ideas:	38	7.5%	<i>yukuyuku</i> 'in the future' <i>kinkin</i> 'shortly' <i>sutasuta</i> 'hurriedly' <i>naganaga</i> 'long'
Spatial ideas:			
Distribution	70		<i>barabara</i> 'in drips' <i>betsubetsu</i> 'separately' <i>sumizumi</i> 'in every nook and corner' <i>kiregire</i> 'in pieces'
Continuity	10		<i>chakuchaku</i> 'steadily' <i>zorozoro</i> 'in a continuous stream' (used of people or animals) <i>jirijiri</i> 'gradually progressing' <i>gungun</i> 'steadily and fast'
Movement	49		<i>buruburu</i> 'tremblingly' <i>sorosoro</i> 'slowly' <i>surasura</i> 'fluently' <i>guragura</i> 'shakingly'
	129	25.5%	

Meaning	Number		Examples
Quantitative ideas:	26	5.2%	<i>hotohoto</i> 'completely' <i>manman</i> 'fully' <i>nanaka</i> 'very' <i>sokosoko</i> 'approximately'
Mental states:	13	2.6%	<i>kotsukotsu</i> 'laboriously' <i>ukauka</i> 'absent-mindedly' <i>tsukuzuku</i> 'thoughtfully'
Scattering ⁴	35	7%	
Total	506		

³ Kinesthesia, pain, taste, temperature.

⁴ Confusion, plurality, various relations, miscellaneous.

Taking first the sensory group, we note that one of the conspicuous characteristics of these doublets is the large number of onomatopoeic words, that is, words, the sound of which is akin to the meaning of the word or words with which it is associated. Examples are: *pecha pecha* 'chatteringly,' *pota pota* 'in drips,' *merimeri* with a creaking sound,' *gabugabu* 'with a gulping sound,' *do(o)do(o)* 'roaringly.'

Since the Japanese alphabet (or rather syllabary) is very nearly phonetic the onomatopoeic character is evidenced not only in the sounds of the voice, but also on the written and printed page. A tonal analysis of the five vowels, *a*, *i*, *u*, *e*, *o* shows that *i* is a high-pitched sound, *o* and *u* are low-pitched, whereas the dominant tone of *a* is intermediate. Thus nearly all the doublets in Japanese that represent such sounds as shrill voices, sounds of ripping cloth, ringing and jingling of small bells, neighing of a horse, creaking and squeaking of a wagon, whistling, etc., contain the high-pitched vowel *i* in combination with explosive or fricative consonants. Examples of these are: *ki(i)ki(i)* 'squeaking,' *biribiri* 'ripping,' *rinrin* 'jingling of small bells,' *hi(i)hi(i)* 'sobbingly.' On the contrary, low-pitched rumbling or roaring sounds are represented by the vowels *o* and *u*. Examples are: *go(o)go(o)* 'with a roaring sound' (as of a water-fall), *gorogoro* 'rolling of thunder, of wheels,' *dondon* 'a hammering sound.' The intermediate pitch of *a* is represented in such sounds as the noise of chattering *gayagaya*, clattering, *gachagacha*, laughing, *karakara*, splash of water, *jabujabu*.

The other sensory types serve to call up vivid special kinds of sensation: for example, in the case of tactual, *tsurutsuru* 'slippery,' *nechanecha* 'sticky,' *kachikachi* 'hardened,' *moyamoya* 'shaggy,' *jimejime* 'damp.' More than a third in this group emphasize roughness.

Of the visual doublets more than half express brightness in such concrete forms as *pikapika* 'glittering,' *kankan* 'blazing,' *harebare* 'clear,'

jirojiro 'staring.' There are only a few words for dimness, e.g. *an-an* 'dimly,' and *yo(o)yo(o)* 'obscurely.' Colors are limited to the blue of the sky and the greenness of vegetation both expressed by the same word *aoao*.

Taste is represented only by *awaawa(shiku)* 'tastelessly,' and *niganiga-(shiku)* 'bitterly.'

Kinesthesia is represented by strain, *eiei*, *lekuteku* and *gungun*, and by relaxation, *yasuyasu*. Of the other proprioceptive senses only nausea is represented, by *mukamuka* and *geigei*.

The emotional expressions are especially interesting and impressive. As stated above, 82 doublets in all or 1/6 of the entire number fall under this heading. Most of them express anger, fear, pleasure (of varying intensity up to joy and bliss) and displeasure (from mild dissatisfaction at one extreme to great sadness and grief at the other). These categories are not mutually exclusive since anger and fear might (and usually do) involve also a feeling of displeasure. Almost any situation may be accompanied by a pleasure or an unpleasant reaction, although the pleasure or displeasure may not be a dominant element of the meaning. These four categories comprise $\frac{2}{3}$ of all the words in which an emotional element dominates. Examples are:

Pleasure: *nikoniko* 'smilingly,' *seisei* 'refreshingly,' *ukiuki* 'buoyantly.'

Displeasure: *kusakusa* 'wretchedly,' *kuyokuyo* 'mopingly,' *sawasawa* 'uneasily,' *samezame* '(crying) bitterly,' *shoboshobo* 'dejectedly,' *iyaiya* 'reluctantly.'

Anger: *muramura*, *kankan*, *buriburi*, *pumpun*, *puripuri* all express intense feelings of anger.

Fear: *hiyahiya* 'in fear,' *buruburu* 'tremblingly,' *kowagowa* 'fearfully,' *ododo* and *ojioji* both express condition of timidity and fear.

Some examples of the remaining $\frac{1}{3}$ are *kosekose* 'fussily,' *kosokoso* 'sneakingly.' *Zawazawa*, *sowasowa* and *sekaseka* express state of agitation.

Temporal concepts are also expressed by doublets. It can be said in general that the doublets perform the function of indicating a larger number of very specific time relations than do the more common adverbs as before, after, while, later, sooner, etc. Examples of such doublets of time concepts are: *daidai* 'for generations,' *iyoioyo* 'at last,' *nochinochi* 'in the future,' *kasanegasane* 'again and again,' *tsugitsugi* 'one after another.' In addition to these temporal ideas which express specific forms of durative or momentarily occurring acts, there are many temporal concepts which also involve the distribution of acts in time, as *chokuchoku* 'now and then,' *tabitabi* 'again and again.'

Under the heading of spatial concepts are included the subtitles,—distribution (in space), continuity and also movement. The last is included since all movement involves translation in space.

Similarly many doublets which express spatial relations supplement by more concrete expressions, the simpler, more general ideas expressed by the commonly used adverbs meaning above, below, behind, etc. Such are

chirichiri 'scattered,' *sumizumi* 'in every nook and corner,' *gizagiza* 'zigzag,' *ho(o)bo(o)* 'in all directions.'

Closely related to the spatial relations are certain expressions of quantity, for example, *madamada* 'still more,' *sho(o)sho(o)* 'a little,' *yaya* 'more or less,' etc. There are no less than eight doublets expressing the ideas fat, chubby, plump, flabby and the like by *fuwafuwa*, *marumaru*, *dabudabu* and *debudebu*. The first two are complimentary and the last two depreciatory.

The predominantly concrete meaning of the doublets as a whole is retained even in the category of mental activities, where we might expect to meet with highly abstract ideas. Most of these words suggest, along with the mental activity, a realistic picture of a specific characteristic of the personality, e.g. *gowagowa* and *gotsugotsu*, 'stiff as of starched cloth,' are used figuratively to describe personality traits and manner. This usage confirms the well-known fact that abstract ideas are usually, if not always, accompanied by more or less vivid sensory imagery.

The very specific character and application of the meanings of most of these doublets cause foreigners some difficulty in using them correctly, if the meaning is learned only from a dictionary. For example, *mirumiru* 'in an instant,' which is a duplication of the word *miru* 'to see,' is used only in connection with visual imagery, e.g. "He ate up the pie in an instant (in the wink of an eye)."

Attention has already been called to the concrete character of many of these expressions which, in some cases, approach even picturesqueness. As the table shows, nearly $\frac{2}{3}$ of these doublets represent predominantly direct sensory impressions of sight, sound, taste, touch, and even some of the proprioceptive senses, such as nausea, *mukamuka*. Furthermore, when we examine the words classified under emotion, spatial ideas, mental activities and even temporal concepts, we find that in most cases prominent concrete images are associated with the words. This is, of course, due in part to the fact that words always absorb elements of the context and incorporate them into their meanings.

It appears evident that the outstanding function of these doublets is the same as that which is commonly performed by figurative language, namely, to add vividness and intensity to the communicated ideas, this being accomplished by the concreteness of the expressions.

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Schiller's Faith in a Democratic Society as Revealed in "William Tell"

IT IS the purpose of this paper to examine Schiller's *William Tell* for evidences of an early faith in and understanding of a democratic society. Certainly the drama always has been famed for its portrayal of the spirit of independence and liberty on the part of the Swiss people. But it appears that Schiller possessed other concepts and advocated other tenets beyond those contained in a simple desire for political freedom.

Within democracy as it is known and aspired to in the relatively recent histories of western Europe and the United States, there are at least five essential characteristics. These may be called the quintessence of democracy; their presence within Schiller's drama, it is contended, demonstrates that Schiller's beliefs are not wholly those of the pre-French Revolution type but instead bear implications for the present struggle against totalitarian tyranny and injustice within and without the United States.

The first essential of a democratic society is, of course, that of freedom. Freedom is the ability and the opportunity to do what one wants to do, but in a democratic society the freedoms of the group and of the members of the group are inter-dependent. Among the values which appear to have been of the greatest importance to Schiller was that of inner freedom. Upon this inner freedom might be built a society in reflection of the free individual. And if the individual needs freedom, both within and without, and that freedom is his right, certainly the state should be based upon freedom. For it seems clear that the development of the state largely will reflect and follow the pattern of its component individuals.

The yearning for true liberty is evident throughout *William Tell*. Gertrude, in the second scene of Act I, insists that freedom from tyranny, even through war, is important above all. She would even burn her cherished home if that were necessary to be free.

And did I think this heart
Enslaved and fettered to the things of earth,
With my own hand I'd hurl the kindling torch.¹

¹Quotations are taken from the translation by Sir Theodore Martin in *The German Classics of the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries*, Kuno Francke, editor. Albany, New York: 1913. J. B. Lyons Company. Vol. III, p. 245-365.

After Gessler's visit, Gertrude rouses a storm of "wild and perilous thoughts" in Stauffacher; the spark of freedom which she kindles quickly ignites into a hungry flame. At the Keep of Uri, Furst calls the castle and its prison "the grave of freedom," and Tell introduces the thought that God had built a home of freedom in the mountains for the people. At the end of Act I, in scene 4, Melchthal promises for his blinded father that freedom's radiance will illumine "thy darkened way." Further citations are numerous.

The desire for freedom, however, is not restricted to political freedom, to release from the political avarice of the Hapsburgs. The need and desire for freedom stems here from the conscious thoughts of tyrannized people everywhere. It is the human need for liberty, independence, a place in the sun; it is the need for self-expression, for the ability to think, speak, worship, act, in fear of no unjust power. But too often this freedom to which men aspire is not coupled with a second vital characteristic of democracy, responsibility.

Potentially, the objects of responsibility in any democratic society are multiple: self, family, community, nation, humanity. As the degree of enlightenment is increased, the extent of the limits of the objects of responsibility increase outward from self. For every freedom, then, there is a responsibility; without it, freedom is license, extravagance, and injustice to others. Schiller recognized this.

In the opening scene of his drama, Schiller depicts Baumgarten as being pursued by the troopers. Baumgarten wants his freedom badly and pours out his frantic story to the men at the lake. Instantly, they recognize their obligations even though the man's chance for freedom will endanger their own. When Ruodi becomes fearful at the storm, the words burst from Kuoni:

Push out—God be with you!
We should help our neighbor;
The like misfortune may betide us all.

Although Tell, rather than the fearful fisherman, rows Baumgarten to safety across the lake, Schiller does portray clearly that the unselfish assumption of responsibility for the welfare of others is a basic principle in a democratic society. Schiller embodied his protagonists with a real sense of responsibility to immediate neighbor and, in turn, to humanity itself.

In Act II, there is a similar demonstration of this tenet of responsibility as Attinghausen pleads with Rudenz to stay among the people rather than abandon "the sacred cause of thy wronged native land." The feeling of obligation for the shepherd race, not felt at first by Rudenz, later is aroused by Bertha's impassioned and wise arguments. Rudenz, who forgets his responsibilities toward people and country in a move to better his own fortunes through subservience to Austria, eventually realizes his true loyalties and thus wins the respect and love he so desperately seeks.

The sense of responsibility for others is evidenced further by both the peasantry and the nobility in the several instances wherein Gessler antagonizes the people singly and collectively. Stauffacher's house and its hospitality also serves to demonstrate an understanding of the need for assuming responsibility for the welfare of others. Attinghausen's realization that he and the nobility need the people even as the people need him and the nobles similarly negates the erroneous conception of democracy as unprincipled freedoms running without rein. The Diet on Rootli certainly depicts the deep feeling of comradeship engendered by the awareness of responsibility in a common cause. Just as these men at Rootli voluntarily recognize the authority of the German Empire as far as it recognizes their individual rights, so freedom and responsibility were sensed by Schiller to go hand in hand. To some, it appears that many Americans in mid-century lose sight of this concept.

Differences in a democratic society are settled by compromise, by arbitration. This third trait of democracy is best described by Schiller in his Diet on the Rootli episode. Although joined by a common cause, there are important differences for the men to settle. Who will submit to the Austrians and who will fight? Who will ponder over policies and who will draw the crossbows? An autocracy or a military totalitarian system would lay down dicta; an anarchy would achieve nothing. In a democracy, all representatives offer their convictions, and, while the majority rules, the minorities have a right to full expression and consideration of their arguments. Decisions are reached without force.

Note, then, how Rosselmann the pastor immediately steps into the circle and is true to his sworn principles of peace and love as he admonishes:

Bethink well before ye draw the sword.
Some peaceful compromise may yet be made.

And Reding cries:

Confederates! Have all gentler means been tried?
Perchance the Emperor knows not of our wrongs,
It may not be his will we suffer thus.

One by one the men step into the circle, speak their words, and step back. In this peaceful, just, and reasonable manner, views are declared and all sides are heard. When the Diet is concluded, and the confederacy established, Urbi is to lead in battle and Schwytz in council. Thus each part of the whole is to employ its strength and talents, and the whole group is to profit from the contributions of its members. This spirit of compromise is a high order of societal intelligence; Schiller saw the virtues in its practice and, unlike the tyrant, did not see weakness in compromise.

Compromise infers the existence of a fourth essential characteristic, control. Democracy is that middle ground between anarchy and totalitarianism

with respect to the extent and quality of control, for in a living democracy there can be no rigid boundary, no arbitrarily determined amount of control. It is this flux and change which confounds the opponents of democracy. But control by the people through their chosen representatives is necessary to further their welfare and to militate both against chaotic anarchy and the tyranny of the few. For democracy has implicitly within it the idea of delegated authority and obedience to properly constituted expert leadership.

Schiller's *William Tell* anticipates these concepts. The Swiss see the need for order and control, but they fear the tyranny of excessive control symbolized by Gessler. They will fight to throw off the conditions which do not respect the needs and wishes of the governed. In the fourth Act, at the height of the series of Gessler's tyrannical actions, Melchthal may voice Schiller's convictions:

The very ox . . . that meekly bends
The strength of his huge neck beneath the yoke,
Springs up, if he's provoked, whets his strong horn,
And tosses his tormentor to the clouds.

Goaded beyond toleration, the people thus seek to assert their own choice in the amount of control over them. There are many instances of group and individual restraint in the drama. Tell himself practices extreme control in the apple-shooting scene. Schiller believed, it would appear, that a people which can pull rein on its own emotions and impulses is necessary to a nation which is to achieve stature among other nations. Examples of unnecessary control, including the building of the Keep at Uri, abound in the drama.

Whatever external forms of control may exist, in political and social systems, they reflect in turn the fifth and final essential of a democratic way of life. That trait is concerned with the worth and the dignity of the individual. Perhaps this characteristic is, above all, the one single quality which distinguishes democracy above all other forms of society. Democracy assumes universal respect for the human personality; it assumes that the individual has within himself the ability to achieve a fuller knowledge of himself which will serve to modify his behavior without recourse to physical force. This principle includes the right of mutual respect and treatment; it includes the essential equality, dignity, and moral worth of man.

Note how Schiller expresses this conviction over and over again. The people as a group reveal their character through the assumption of responsibilities involving real dangers. A vivid scene is that of the death of Attinghausen in Act IV. Eloquently calling upon his people, his class, and his family to realize high ideals and aspirations, the dying man reveals his own spirit through his final words. His is the dignity above that of those

born to command; it is the dignity springing from an awareness that there must be justice for all social levels if the whole group is to achieve its ambitions and deserved rights. Early, the baron looked with regret upon Ulrich of Rudenz, who:

... looks upon the peasant with disdain
And tak'st his honest greeting with a blush.

The nobility of action which conflict may inspire is evidenced clearly in Act III when Gessler capriciously seizes upon Tell's unwillingness to bow before the cap. Schiller shows his belief in the essential dignity of even the humblest of men through his portrayal of Tell. For it is important to realize that these Swiss are not classical figures; they are shepherds, fishermen, craftsmen. When the oppressor's lack of belief in the real dignity of these Swiss is made apparent by his actions, then Schiller insists that the treatment has gone too far. The Swiss are humans deserving of respect; they are not slaves or animals. Finally, it is plain that the Swiss, in preserving their human dignity in a time of suffering, demonstrate fully their right to expect and receive respect. Their conduct, their self-control, their realization that even Gessler's hired troops are not evil in themselves, all reflect the elevation of the people above unreasoning brutes.

Schiller's faith in the people, in humanity, appears to antedate many others who have espoused democratic causes. He could not anticipate all of the expensive embellishments of later American democracy. But his mature recognition of the nature and potentialities of a dynamic democratic society, even in the Europe of 1804, shames those Americans today whose lack of faith in democracy emboldens the powerful forces of tyranny.

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Unamuno y el Quijotismo

LA INMORTALIDAD personal es el primer anhelo del hombre y de los pueblos. Tal es la cuestión vital de toda la obra de Miguel de Unamuno. En el ámbito material todo se transforma, nada muere. Adelantándose a las elaboraciones psicológicas freudianas, Unamuno sustenta el principio de que no hay visión humana que desaparezca jamás completamente, que muera. Existen dos mundos irreconciliables: el mundo aparential de bachilleres, duques y canónigos, y el mundo espiritual de Don Quijote de la Mancha. ¿Cuál es el verdadero? La esencia del quijotismo es la locura, pero esta locura, en el mundo espiritual, no es más que el heroísmo y la bondad suprema.

La visión es nuestro anhelo y aquello que anhelamos es verdad. Por eso Unamuno huye de la lógica y el sentido común que tiranizan nuestras ansias espirituales y no nos dan ningún consuelo. La visión es el ideal y éste es la vida misma. La visión puede ser yelmo para unos, bacía para otros. Pero lo que Unamuno rechaza de plano es el *baciyelmo* sanchopanresco. No. En el espíritu rebelde y afirmativo de Unamuno no encontraremos jamás la componenda claudicante, ni la cómoda moderación horaciana del *in medio virtus*. Sólo poniendo de relieve las afirmaciones extremas y hasta las aparentes contradicciones, será posible obtener sazonados frutos.

Unamuno era un hombre ya formado y maduro cuando en su entrañable Salamanca, a los 41 años, nos dió su *Vida de Don Quijote y Sancho*. En su libérrima interpretación, sacó a los dos personajes clave del marco cervantino y les infundió una nueva vida por aquello de que la historia es la esencia de un individuo. No hay historia más que del hombre o de los pueblos. Para Unamuno, Don Quijote y Sancho son hombres de carne y hueso que existieron en la vida real aún antes de que Cervantes los presentara a la posteridad, igual que más tarde Pirandello hacía a sus personajes ir en busca de un autor. ¿Podrá algún día la investigación literaria descubrir, Dios sabe en qué rincón de los archivos de la Mancha, la existencia física de los héroes cervantinos? ¿O acaso demostrar documentalmente que *Cide Hamete Benenjeli* fué un historiador arábigo de carne y hueso y no un recurso literario que utilizó Cervantes? Unamuno, que era ante todo un hombre de fe, asegura que Don Quijote y Sancho existieron en la vida real, pero el libro que prometió para probar sus aseveraciones no vió nunca la luz. Poco respeto sentía Unamuno por la erudición que calificaba de "adormidera ocupación de la pereza espiritual."

El vasco Unamuno añora nostálgico los verdes prados de su tierra

nórdica en su primera salida a la capital de España, pero, resueltas sus apremiantes necesidades pecuniarias para dar estabilidad económica a su familia, se independiza, fija su sede en Salamanca y ya desde entonces arraiga su corazón en lo más profundo de Castilla. Sólo así podía habernos legado su *Vida de Don Quijote y Sancho*. Los polvorientos caminos de la Mancha, que atraviesan aquellos páramos esquilmados por la erosión secular, sólo podían ser sentidos en toda su angustia espiritual por un Unamuno castellanizado que había recorrido también a pie casi toda su provincia de Salamanca, para recrearse, como un sibarita espiritual, en la contemplación y sentimiento del paisaje de Castilla, que emociona por lo austero, crudo y empobrecido.

Más que las contradicciones aparentes que se observan en las obras de Unamuno, es de notar la uniformidad afirmativa y hasta la repetición machacona de los mismos temas a través de toda su producción. La interpretación de la aventura de los molinos de viento puede servir de ejemplo en este breve estudio. El tema está ya tratado en el ensayo *Ideocracia*, en *Amor y pedagogía*, y desarrollado en *Del sentimiento trágico de la vida* y en varios ensayos más. Los molinos de viento representan los últimos adelantos de la ciencia. Como Tolstoy y Anatole France, cree Unamuno que la ciencia no puede resolver los problemas de la vida. La ciencia consta de ideas, dice, pero éstas no son más que medios. Hay que tener ideas, como ojos y manos, pero no ser tenidos por ellas. Las ideas sirven de poco en sí, hasta que se convierten en ideales. "Y al fin rendirá el género humano su espíritu agotado de cansancio y hastío al pie de una colosal fábrica de elixir de larga vida." (*Vida de Don Quijote y Sancho*, segunda edición, p. 80).

Pero, aunque castellanizado a orillas del Tormes, Unamuno no puede olvidar su naturaleza vasca, ni el orgullo de sus paisanos por su raza. Esta devoción al tronco tradicional se repite una y otra vez en su trayectoria literaria. En la *Vida de Don Quijote y Sancho* no puede reprimir su exaltación por San Ignacio de Loyola, no sabemos bien si por santo o por vasco. Hay dos clases de caballeros andantes: caballeros a lo humano y caballeros a lo divino, representados por Don Quijote y San Ignacio, respectivamente. Unamuno se esfuerza por encontrar un parangón entre el manchego y el vasco. Los dos sienten hambre de inmortalidad, el uno por la gloria y el otro por la visión beatífica que le aguarda eternamente en el cielo. Unamuno, llega un momento en que nos revela su complejo místico cuando, por boca de Don Quijote y aún del buen Sancho, duda en la elección de la gloria o del cielo. Es la congoja espiritual que no ha de resolver, ni quiere resolver, mientras viva.

Ya en sus días de adolescente, cuando seguía obediente la religión de sus mayores, el pensamiento en la vida eterna no se apartaba de su curiosidad espiritual. El anhelo de perpetuarse es lo que verdaderamente mueve

al hombre. Pero Unamuno repugnaba del ser pensante cartesiano y, por lo tanto, no podía formular una teoría racional de la vida que pudiera demostrarse con silogismos. A pesar de su casi inagotable capacidad para el trabajo intelectual, no se lanzó a sondear las posibilidades de llegar a un sistema filosófico que le encasillase de lleno en el campo estricto de la filosofía. Unamuno no llama al suyo sistema ni teoría, sino fantasmagoría o visión que no se demuestra racionalmente, aunque insiste como Galileo, "¡e pur si muove!" Coincide en esto con el pensamiento kantiano y las corrientes filosóficas de fines del siglo XIX, que anteponen la voluntad al intelecto y la razón.

El hambre de inmortalidad le llevó a escribir la *Vida de Don Quijote y Sancho*, ya que vió en el caballero manchego la representación más genuina de la aspiración del hombre a hacerse eterno. La *Vida de Don Quijote* que explicó y comentó Unamuno poco o nada tiene que ver con el pensamiento de Cervantes, ya que es exclusiva invención o visión unamunesca. Sin entrar aquí a ahondar en la metafísica cervantina, vemos que por el procedimiento que nos brinda Unamuno, tenemos el campo absolutamente libre para dar amplias alas a la imaginación y remontar el vuelo a lomos de *Clavileño* por el ámbito de las visiones y los sueños.

No tenemos que probar la inmortalidad, que, por otra parte, ya dijo David Hume que no se podía demostrar convincentemente con la razón. La filosofía escolástica maravilló al mundo con la creación y desarrollo de un monumental sistema encaminado a valerse de la razón para demostrar la inmortalidad del alma y para razonar lo que para Unamuno es irrazonable.

Don Quijote no es, pues, una creación que la historia de la literatura atribuye a Miguel de Cervantes y Saavedra, sino una ficción. Una ficción que, valorizada en el campo de lo eterno y no en la reducida cárcel del tiempo y del espacio, vale más, muchísimo más que la historia, porque nos mueve a obrar, que es lo que importa.

De William James tomó Unamuno el concepto pragmático de la verdad. Pero éste fué sólo un punto de partida. Para James, una idea se realiza o se hace verdadera si sus consecuencias son útiles. Unamuno va más allá y siente que es verdad todo lo que es vida. Hay dos momentos contrapuestos en la visión que nos da Unamuno de Don Quijote. Por una parte, el caballero manchego existió, aunque Cervantes no hubiese sido su fiel historiador. Por otra, Don Quijote es una ficción, un sueño, pero un sueño que es un ideal que nos mueve a obrar, y, por lo tanto, es la realidad misma. Don Quijote no es un concepto cerrado de la erudición literaria, sino un anhelo humano que está abierto a todas las interpretaciones libres. Unamuno nos da la suya, que él quiere presentar como la filosofía del pueblo español, pensamiento que es universalizado y desarrollado en *Del sentimiento trágico de la vida*.

Por el mismo procedimiento subjetivo de la visión, Unamuno, en la difícil tarea de justipreciar los valores que tienen validez universal, lo cual es misión de la filosofía, nos brinda en Sancho la visión de la humanidad. Se ha dicho que Unamuno, antes de abrazar resueltamente el ideal de la espiritualidad del hombre, profesó ideas spencerianas socializantes, con tendencia a ver en el hombre principalmente un elemento de la comunidad social. Es posible que el visualizar a Sancho como representante de la humanidad y no concretamente como el hombre de carne y hueso Sancho Panza, sea un vestigio de antiguas preocupaciones sociales. El caballero Don Quijote, por muy idealizado que esté, no puede separarse de la humanidad, como tampoco la humanidad puede separarse del ideal.

En esta coyuntura, nos preguntamos ¿por qué sigue Sancho a Don Quijote cuando sabe que su amo está loco? Creemos que es más loco el cuerdo que sigue al loco que el loco mismo. Y entonces, la humanidad está loca. Pero Unamuno, como ya vimos, ha elaborado la locura hasta Hermanarla con el quijotismo. El hombre espiritual Unamuno afirma que Sancho sigue a su amo porque tiene fe en él. Pero tener fe, según Unamuno, no es creer, porque el creer supone sólo un proceso de intelectualismo, de dogma, y tener fe es crear lo que no vemos. Es decir, convertir la idea, producto del intelecto, en ideal, producto de la razón y del corazón. Para San Agustín, la fe religiosa es una gracia de Dios. Pero Unamuno rechaza el elemento sobrenatural de la fe, al que llama "trágica escapatoria," considerando que tal concepto es la fe del carbonero que consiste en creer lo que se ignora.

Pero la fe que muestra Sancho en el caballero andante es una fe humana y, por lo tanto, imperfecta. Es una fe vacilante—una fe dudosa, diría Unamuno. Esta fe adolece de altibajos de firmeza que el historiador Cervantes anota fielmente en los sucesivos episodios de la epopeya. El proceso de quijotización de Sancho es paulatino, y la fe que poco a poco va profesando a su amo llega a su punto culminante cuando, próximo a morir—así lo quiere Cervantes—Don Quijote claudica en sus ideales que llama locuras, y es precisamente Sancho, el buen escudero, quien, impregnado del quijotismo de su amo, y sin abandonar su propia personalidad rústica, le amonesta "¡calles por su vida, vuelva en sí, y déjese de cuentos!"

También Unamuno tiene fe en Don Quijote. Por eso hace una creación *sui generis* del héroe manchego. Una creación que es más bien autocreación. Para ahondar en el alma de Unamuno tendremos que adentrarnos en la personalidad quijotesca tal y como él la explica e interpreta. Un análisis de la obra de Unamuno anterior y posterior a 1905, fecha de publicación de su *Vida de Don Quijote y Sancho*, nos revelará pronto que las cualidades que atribuye al héroe manchego son ideales propugnados por Unamuno en sus escritos. En *Del sentimiento trágico de la vida* hay una exaltación moral vehemente a la necesidad de ser bueno, bueno sin explicaciones dogmáticas

ni imperativos categóricos kantianos, ni razonamientos escolásticos. Ese es el atributo por excelencia de Don Quijote y, aún, más, de Alonso Quijano *el Bueno*.

El sentimiento del dolor espiritual que tantas veces vemos reflejado en Don Quijote nos revela otra faceta de la personalidad de Unamuno. Senancour debió de ejercer una poderosa influencia en él. El dolor impresionante que grita en las páginas de *Obermann* se quedó bien grabado en el alma de Unamuno, hasta llegar a hacerlo suyo. El dolor es para Unamuno tan vital como el aire que respira. La vida sin dolor sería incomprensible, pues sólo nos damos perfecta cuenta de nuestra existencia cuando sufrimos. Lo muerto o lo inconsciente es lo único que no sufre. En vano buscaremos la alegría en Unamuno. El placer es para él una ilusión fugaz que desaparece tan pronto como se satisface la necesidad inmediata que lo provocó. ¿Y qué es la vida del *Caballero de la Triste Figura*—como la interpreta Unamuno—sino un incesante sufrir? El dolor sirve de camino al ideal. Es el anhelo angustioso por Dulcinea, que es la gloria, o, quizá, el dolor de humilde timidez y frustración de doce perseverantes años de sed de amor por Aldonza Lorenzo.

Unamuno sigue su obra robusta de idealización, creando a Don Quijote a su imagen y semejanza. El hidalgo manchego es un fiel creyente en Dios. También Unamuno cree en Dios, aunque no ha llegado a su fe por el camino racional de la filosofía teológica. La filosofía escolástica no puede darle el Dios vivo en que cree, sino una especie de Dios-Idea, y la idea, mientras no se convierte en ideal, es algo muerto. El camino para llegar a Dios no es el racional. La razón no puede probar que Dios existe, aunque tampoco puede demostrar su inexistencia. Sólo por el corazón, por vía cordial, podemos llegar a Dios. A tal conclusión llegó también Pascal. Unamuno sigue esta senda y afirma que aunque la inmortalidad del alma es irracional y contra-racional, no se resigna a aceptar impasiblemente tal proposición que, en fin de cuentas, sólo conduce a la nada. "Lo que siento es una verdad, tan verdad por lo menos como lo que veo, toco, oigo y se me demuestra—yo creo que más verdad aún—, y la sinceridad me obliga a no ocultar mis sentimientos." (*Del sentimiento trágico de la vida*, p. 119.)

La pregunta racional ¿existe Dios? Unamuno dice que es insoluble. Tal agnosticismo no podemos aceptarlo como la frivolidad a priori de un hombre carente de voluntad para satisfacer sus ansias de saber, como señala Julián Marías (*Miguel de Unamuno*, p. 149), pues no es necesario subrayar que Unamuno, a pesar de todo su menosprecio a la erudición por la erudición, dedicó toda su vida a una lucha titánica por la verdad, aún a sabiendas de que no iba a encontrarla en vida, porque precisamente es ese anhelo, esa angustia e inquietud por la inmortalidad personal, el motor y razón de su vida. Y, siendo ésta la fe de Unamuno, no podía ser otra la de Don Quijote que cree en Dios, pero no con fe muerta, sino con constante incertidumbre

ital. Si nos supeditamos sumisamente a dogmas e ideas, mataremos nuestra alma, y nuestro espíritu no irá más lejos que el del bachiller Sansón Carrasco.

La retirada de Don Quijote a su aldea, después de luchar con heroísmo por esos mundos de Dios, tiene que invitarnos, como invitó a Unamuno, a hondas meditaciones. El español tiene la funesta tendencia a huir de la vida. Esto salta a la vista al observar cómo reaccionan las diferentes clases sociales. Hay español que trabaja más torturándose el ingenio para hallar la picaresca manera de vivir sin trabajar—que es no vivir—, que si en realidad trabajara. Y la mesocracia española lleva mucho tiempo retirada de la vida real viviendo de las apariencias. Rafael Altamira atribuye la aversión al trabajo de los españoles a motivos históricos y religiosos, pues los cristianos viejos del siglo XV y del XVI no querían mezclarse con los moriscos ni ser confundidos con los conversos que se dedicaban a trabajos manuales. El hombre intelectual adopta a veces la filosofía mística, y también senequista, de apartarse de este mundo y seguir la escondida senda que eligiera fray Luis de León para vivir con amor y verdad, sin mortificarse el espíritu con ambiciones terrenas.

Unamuno, una vez más, hace suya el alma de Don Quijote, llevándolo a los prados de la Arcadia para transformarlo en el pastor *Quijótiz*, cuyo anhelo, sin embargo, tanto de caballero andante como de pastor, no es otro que la obsesión imperecedera de Unamuno: perseverar, immortalizarse, no sucumbir.

FRANCISCO UGARTE

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Conversational Courses at Michigan State College

WHEN several ASTP language groups were studying at Michigan State College during the late war, their presence soon was felt by town and college alike. Here were enthusiasm and a degree of readily acquired proficiency that was amazing. Upon the termination of the ASTP at Michigan State, the administration of the school almost immediately undertook to introduce certain features of the Army plan into the curriculum of the regular students. The latter, it was foreseen, could not be expected to be on a par with the highly-motivated, specialized personnel gleaned from the military ranks; but the experiment was eagerly made.

The new conversational courses were inaugurated at Michigan State College in the Autumn Quarter of 1944. They comprised a two-year program. There was, however, some diversity in the manner in which this program was set up. In French, German, and Spanish, the languages with sufficient enrollment to warrant such an arrangement, the beginning student was permitted to enter either the conversational or the regular course. Italian and Portuguese became conversational, whereas Russian did not. It was perhaps owing to an accidental division that an interesting experiment was made when Japanese¹ was given as a conversational course while Chinese was taught in the conventional manner. When first adopted, the conversational classes met for twelve hours a week for six credits. Three hours were dedicated to elucidation of grammar, the remaining nine being laboratory periods. Although the twelve contact hours represented a considerable reduction from the seventeen of the ASTP, after the first year of experimentation they were further reduced to ten, with five credits, the same number of credits given by the regular elementary courses. This was not done, as one might suppose, because of student reluctance to spend the extra time in class, but rather to avoid a six-credit course that threw out of balance the load of the average student. Then too, the twelve-hour arrangement necessitated Saturday morning classes for all sections, which presented certain schedule difficulties.

Another change was made in the elementary courses as they were offered the second time. The grammar sessions, which previously had been held three times a week for all three quarters, were increased to four weekly periods in the first quarter and cut to two periods in the remaining terms

¹ Italian, Japanese, and Portuguese became regular courses in the Autumn Quarter of 1950.

of the school year. It was felt that the student in the early months of his language experience might benefit more from this additional hour of explanation from a teacher trained in the American tradition than he would from spending the time in conversation with the native teacher; and that later the emphasis on grammar might well be reduced. The theory has worked well in practice and there has been no subsequent change in the division of hours.

The second-year conversational classes did not meet, of course, until the program had been reduced to ten hours per week. They were given from the first, then, for five credits. As in the case of the second and third terms of the revised beginning courses, these advanced classes consisted of two grammar and eight laboratory periods. Now the demands on a student's time and interest increase as he ascends the educational ladder, so that the second-year student became restive under the ten-hour requirement. At this stage of his language work, as compared to the year before, he not only found more reasons for dropping the course, but in many instances lost one powerful incentive to remain in it. By the time of the completion of the Winter Quarter he had earned twenty-five credits. That was enough to satisfy a two-year requirement, one credit more, in fact, than was required of those taking the regular course. If the fulfillment of such a requirement, then, was our student's motive for taking the language course, he did not continue with the class in the Spring. Of course, the first advanced group had earned eighteen instead of fifteen credits in the elementary work, so that the situation was aggravated in their case. To cope with this student loss in the final quarter of the second-year classes, the latter, after having been taught for three years as ten-hour, five-credit courses, were reduced in the fall of 1948 to five sessions a week and three credits. Two hours are for grammar and three are laboratory periods. Judging from the last two years, this has checked the tendency of students to drop the course in the final term. Since the second-year reading courses meet for three hours per week, the credits of the conversational program now balance those of the regular classes as the latter are presented in the first two years: fifteen credits in the first year and nine in the second. This uniformity *per se* has some advantages. Furthermore, the two-hour composition courses that run throughout the second year may now be elected also by the conversational students if they care to do so. This had not been possible before the reduction in credits of the second-year conversational courses.

A significant aspect of the introduction of these new courses into the curriculum of Michigan State College was that it indicated a change in the orientation of foreign language training. It was recognized that the tendency to relegate language instructors to the status of a "service" department was depriving them of some of their effectiveness as well as making their courses somewhat less attractive than they might be. In a

report submitted by the Committee on Plans of Columbia University to the faculty of that institution, one finds a similar conclusion:

Possibly nothing has prejudiced the approach to and the spirit of the undergraduate's study of foreign languages more than the idea current in recent years that the principal, if not the only important, use of language study is as a "tool" to serve general education. . . . It may even be seriously doubted whether so limited a role for language can achieve its own limited object, stressing as it does, and must, mere "reading knowledge" of the most superficial and imprecise sort. For any worth-while result in the study of a foreign language, certainly the language must be regarded as a source of knowledge and pleasure; and the elements of study must include the ability to distinguish sounds and to reproduce meanings in the foreign tongue.²

The paramount aim of the conversational courses naturally is the acquisition of the ability to speak and to understand the spoken language. For this to be a worthwhile objective, one need not be so unreasonable as to deny it certain qualifications. Obviously, those who planned the new program were not sanguine enough to expect that two years of intensive training would enable the student to attain the far reaches of conversation in the genuine sense; but it was felt that some very long strides could be made in that direction. The student could be expected to learn how to express himself in the foreign tongue on a variety of subjects and to understand a native discussing matters in a much wider, but certainly not the widest, range. He should be well equipped linguistically for living in a country whose language he has studied, since his means of communication would surpass considerably those necessary for the mere acquisition of transportation, lodging, food, and curios. Of course, his pronunciation and accent must be made at least quite passable. So far as the Western European languages were concerned, it was assumed also that the conversational student would be able to read and write the new language about as well as the student in the regular course, or that at the minimum he would be proficient in those skills up to the limit of his speaking ability. At the same time, ample provision was made, as it has been pointed out above, for his mastering the principles of grammar.

One of the prime objectives of good language teaching is the inculcation of certain cultural values. Our students, language teachers are ever ready to assert, explore a new world, discover a civilization different from their own, broaden their outlook, and form new attitudes. There is something in the process of dealing with a foreign language and through its medium grappling with the ideas and ideals of a foreign people that is unique, we believe, in breaking down the barriers to a truer understanding of man and the world he lives in. This too, then, is one of the aims of the conversational program. Besides having access to the reading material in their elementary

² *A College Program in Action*, Columbia University Press, New York, 1946, 31-32.

and review grammars, the students use other textbooks either in the laboratory period or in preparation for it. Their opportunity, therefore, to read and discuss fact or fiction about a foreign country is much the same as that of the students in the regular courses. While it is true that considerable time is devoted to oral drill, by no stretch of the imagination should one believe that two years are consumed in practicing matters concerning a daily routine, such as learning how to order one's breakfast or to inquire about the price of *serapes*. No one in the classroom could tolerate a procedure so limited in scope. Patently, the presence of the native teacher himself forges a vital link to the foreign culture. His personality adds reality to the students' concept of the nation that he represents, and his opinions and first-hand information concerning many phases of life in his homeland cannot fail to be interesting and valuable adjuncts to the material allotted to the course. In this connection, it might be added that the proportion of the conversational students who also enroll in classes in the Division of Foreign Studies or who take part in the extra-curricular activities of the International Center is greater than that of the students in the regular language courses. This seems to indicate a laudable function of the conversational course, whether it was the course that prompted the student to widen his horizon, or whether the student, because of a greater interest in the foreign field, elected the conversational course as being for him the more practical.

It was expected that the introduction to the foreign language in the conversational courses would be an enjoyable experience for the student. The primary factor in this would be his feeling of satisfaction at having accomplished something worthwhile in his own estimation. There can be no doubt that to know a foreign language is accepted as desirable by almost everyone. At least, few people who move about in the circle of higher education believe that they would derive neither benefit nor pleasure from the knowledge of another language, even though they may already know several. Too few, however, see fit to do anything about it. Our student, nevertheless, has entered the course, and with the express desire to learn to speak in the foreign tongue. Of course, he can learn that only by doing; so that he is put to the task the very first day. Granted that his progress is meager at first, it is, notwithstanding, a definite step directed toward his objective. In fact, the student soon realizes that he is learning all that he is capable of and that what he has achieved can be demonstrated, not without pride. He is encouraged because his goal is that of the instructor and because he finds himself slowly but surely advancing toward it. That a laboratory should be as helpful to the teaching of a foreign language as it is to the teaching of a science appeals to his sense of logic. Obviously, much time is needed to learn a foreign language, and it is evident that specific training to speak must be provided when speaking is the objective. The

student does not have to be persuaded of the importance of training his ear and tongue before his eye.

The self-confidence of the conversational student is further abetted by his absolute freedom from fear of a bugaboo that haunts many who study a foreign language: the keenly felt dread of exposing for the first time one's schoolroom language to the critical ears of a foreigner. The association with the native teacher from the very first forestalls this form of timidity. Of course, any other form of "spoken language fright" is swept away by the constant requirement to speak in class. No absolute standards are set for the rate of speed at which the student can be expected to learn to talk. While he is encouraged by the teacher and aided through repetition and drill, the results will inevitably vary according to individual temperament and ability. When the student who has brought some interest into the classroom acquires confidence, his enthusiasm becomes a big factor in the success of the course.

The modern student, who generally seems eager to express himself, has ample opportunity to do so in the small laboratory section. Give and take and interruptions are not discouraged, since they are the essence of conversation. The informality of the session has considerable appeal. It promotes a good *esprit de corps* and lessens the gap between instructor and class. In all, a pleasant atmosphere conducive to the daily exchange of ideas and opinions has been created. Many students consider this informality to be the best feature of the conversational courses. It alone, they feel, would justify the existence of the whole program. It is not long before short prepared speeches can be delivered before the group. Eventually these may grow to some twenty minutes in length, followed by a discussion lasting until the end of the fifty-minute period. By this time our student has every right to believe that he is well on his way toward his objective.

The program is well balanced. In the grammar classes the work is equivalent to that done in the first two years of the regular courses. Its need is appreciated by the students, who properly regard it as a means to an end. In fact, they often seem more aware of how practical an instrument grammar is than do the students in the regular courses. This is because the conversational students can make an immediate application of it in their laboratory meetings, whereas the others are obliged to accept large portions of grammar on faith, to be used only later when the class has finally turned to reading.

The methodology used in the conversational courses is neither restricted nor unique. Many time-tested teaching devices are employed. It is recognized, of course, that the increase in contact hours and the addition of another instructor do not constitute a method. But it is evident that the new program, with its doubling of the class periods, its division of the students into larger and smaller groups for the grammar and the laboratory

sessions, and its use of two teachers, provides a much greater opportunity for putting into practice a variety of effective teaching methods than does a more curtailed system of instruction. This means that the person in charge of the laboratory work is a teacher, not an informant. Our program has benefited from the fact that many of our native instructors have come to us with both previous teaching experience and M.A. degrees from American universities.

Although the conversational courses were introduced at Michigan State College with great confidence, their original inclusion in the curriculum was considered mainly in the light of an experiment. Only a trial could demonstrate how much effectiveness would remain in the ASTP type of training when offered in a modified form to regular college students. Furthermore, there was no claim that the new program, whatever its success might be, would necessarily be accepted as the ultimate in language teaching. Something better might evolve from it or, on the other hand, a quite different system of instruction might eventually replace it. After six years, the conversational program can no longer be considered an experiment. It has proved its worth in providing substantial training to students, not only in conversation, but also in preparing them for third-year classes in literature. In the fields of French, German, and Spanish, where alternative courses are set up, the popularity of the conversational courses has not abated; but in the case of those so-called minor languages which were offered only as conversational courses, the extra contact hours have been regarded as a deterrent to enrollment. While we at Michigan State College are convinced that the ASTP type of training on a restricted scale can provide a very desirable alternative course for regular college students, we do not contend that the problem has been resolved. We still view the matter of methodology in foreign language teaching with open minds.

STANLEY E. HOWELL

Michigan State College

Doesn't Literature Belong in Context?

NATIONAL enrolment figures in literature courses—if not our own dismal observations—have been bringing home sharply to teachers of literature the need for a new approach which will revitalize our work. Perhaps that need can be met through a greater use of history and through a broader cultural base which would allow us to teach our subject less in a vacuum and more in the context from which it sprang. As *Kulturgeschichte*, our courses need not lose their esthetic value and might gain much through greater relevance to the cultural patterns of today.

We have tried a dozen different cures and set up a score of new courses; but the enrolment continues to drop and our students continue to drift to other areas. We have experimented with foreign literatures in translation; we have attempted overlapping courses in continental literature or the Anglo-American field. But to the student, and to the more sceptical among the staff, the result looks very much like the same old material, put through the grinder and coming out in a new form as meat-pie rather than a roast . . . but still last night's dinner masquerading as today's lunch. General education brought us a wave of new hope; but even there we tend to find that literature offerings are mere regroupings of the old works, this time taken from a larger scattering of century courses than before but still lacking a new principle upon which we may take our stand, forthrightly and with confidence that we offer something of value to American students in the mid-twentieth century.

Particularly have we teachers of the foreign literatures failed to grasp the basic nature of the students' objections. We have, all too often, allowed our enthusiasm for the foreign culture to dim our awareness that the student before us does not yet have our knowledge or our tolerance. We have not asked ourselves what grist there was here for the highly specialized mill presented by young American students. Too easily we have lulled ourselves with acidulous comments about the materialism of the American culture; we have too cheerfully taken upon ourselves the martyr's cloak, the robe of the missionary going out into lands of outer darkness bravely bearing our torch before purblind barbarians. Rarely, if ever, have we asked ourselves whether perhaps the student had a point, whether perhaps he was right in failing to respond to our offerings.

The modern youthful American finds little value in reading works of literature entirely divorced from a living context. Any teacher who has long read and loved these works knows that the student is being short-sighted. But the teacher is guilty of his own form of myopia if he considers

that the student is wholly wrong to resent the spending of a full year on the literature of one period of a foreign country, be it the Age of Victoria or that of Augustus. We offer our students a great deal; but they, too, offer us much: their time in our course for a year in a college curriculum crowded to the bursting point by a score of subjects purporting to explain their world to them. When we give them a deep acquaintance with the real masterpieces of a period, then we are well occupying their time; when we find it pleasant—or conventional—to delve too deeply into the background works by lesser men, we are wasting their time. Moreover they know it, even if we do not.

And yet, lying ready to our hands if we would but use them, are deep veins of high-grade ore which we teachers of literature could mine to replace this dross. Secondary authors and their works are not immaterial to the instructor: he must know them to give greater body and life to the masterpieces, to add richer shadows to the highlights he presents to his students. But to the students they must remain the shadows and secondary works that they really are. If instead we will but ally our literary studies with a study of the history of the country, a new vista will open out. For then our courses could become most sensitive instruments for probing into the true nature of the historical process; they could be one of the most revealing means for entering into past ages in order to grasp their inner structure and, thereby, to achieve some awareness of the progress of human events. With a slight change in emphasis, they could become fascinating panoramas displaying for our students the onward rush—or shuffle—of humanity.

A work of literature is, of course, the product of an individual genius, whose literary gifts we have been trained to analyse and illuminate. It is also a derivative of earlier works; it takes its place in a movement or trend of literature. Here, too, we are well trained and do a workmanlike job in our presentation to our students. But, in addition, the literary work is a reflection of the age in which it was produced, the age which, in part, produced it. I am not making a plea that we return to the approach of a Taine, that approach which saw all literary documents, good, bad or indifferent, as equally valid documents for the historian and hence for the historian of literature. Nor am I here upholding that perfunctory opening page or chapter or lecture on the history of the period, a repellent jungle crawling with names and rampant with dates. I am asking instead that we replace the great works in their context, that the historical fabric be precisely that: a basic cloth upon which we weave our patterns, one which is ever felt as underlying our discussions.

Literature, conceived as the reflection of the basic make-up of its age, may be asked to reveal to us that underlying order which makes it possible for us to speak of an "age." The Elizabethan spirit is at its clearest in

Shakespeare: why not teach the Age of Elizabeth along with *Hamlet*? This does not mean a lessening of an esthetic appreciation; it is rather a heightening of it. We must add to our literary discussions enough of the historical material to make them meaningful; and we must not present this as mere historical background. Versailles, the character of Louis XIV, the economic structure elaborated by Colbert, all are essential if we are to appreciate the character of Racine's tragedies. Then we can understand the sense in which Gide has called them—without derogatory intent—the products of a hot-house.

But even if we do relate our material to the history of the period, even then there is much more that we can and must do. When we present in our courses these neatly-packaged periods, serene and orderly, we deceive ourselves and our students; we have not let them understand the real nature of these arbitrary divisions. When we urge Humanism upon students as the characteristic discovery or fruition of the Renaissance, we are apt to ignore Humanism's violent, bloody conflict with a most unhumanistic Sorbonne. We invite the student to adopt the facile notion that all past ages were periods of certainty, times when men read and understood the signposts along their even road. We ask the student only to pass judgement upon the goals. We rarely reveal to him that these goals were not clear to men living then, that uncertainty is the striking characteristic of almost all ages if we but look below the surface of the manuals. Periclean Athens was a high point in human culture, a time when men stood upon a peak and surveyed the world from its lofty vantage point. But it was also the age that put Socrates to death. Somehow that always appears as an unhappy accident! Yet the fact that this was a culture which would put a Socrates to death is almost as important as the fact that it could help to engender him.

We must present the past to our students as an orderly procession, of course. In no other way can they first be introduced to it. But behind this uniform façade the student must glimpse the omnipresent disorder and confusion, quite as much in evidence throughout the past as it is today. When we take even a period as relatively uniform as the Age of Louis XIV, as we have done here, if we present it as an unbroken harmony, or as a cheerful symphony only slightly marred by an occasional catcall from the so-called independents, then we make incomprehensible the actual process by which the Age of Reason, the spirit of free enquiry of the eighteenth century, could come out of the ashes of Louis' reign. Racine, Boileau and La Fontaine must somehow move slightly away from the center of stage to let us see Cyrano leering in a corner. Only then can we understand the grimace of Voltaire in the next century. We must teach our students in terms of relative order, well admixed with confusion or admittedly artificially drawn from it by the later critic. Then we are truly making clear the nature of history. For it is this confusion which gives real meaning to the order.

Only against this frame of reference, this relative confusion, can we see the character of this fictitious order which we must draw from it. For this order is little more than a broad, temporary dominance of certain factors, present earlier and still to be found in later ages. At the moment, but only for the moment, they are partially dominant. It still behooves us to portray the character of a cultural age in its proper colors, with its harmonies but also with its contrasts.

Perhaps an example will make my meaning clearer. Let me take the period of high Romanticism in France, the years 1830-35. I shall assume that the years immediately preceding have been properly presented: the advancing Romanticism of Lamartine, the blatant manifesto of Hugo's *Préface de Cromwell* declaring the principles of the new movement, and the clearly Romantic works of 1828 and 1829. In similar fashion, in the political field I shall assume that the progressively reactionary character of the last Bourbon reigns has been stressed and that the student is familiar with the shifts in line-up which came about when the major Romantic authors became attracted by the new liberalism of the *Globe*, the Saint-Simonians and Sainte-Beuve. Let us begin our survey at the July Revolution, which ousted Charles X and established Louis-Philippe, the bourgeois monarch, upon the throne. In the interests of brevity, let me take it for granted that all the traditional Romantic works will be noted: Hugo's *Hernani*, and *Notre-Dame de Paris*, his volumes of poetry and his other plays. Similarly, Musset's impudent *Contes d'Espagne* and other works, Dumas' *Antony*, Sand's *Indiana*, Lamartine's *Destinées de la poésie*, the start of Michelet's *Histoire de la France*.

Let me turn instead to the elements which I am asking us to add. First the historical elements inextricably interwoven into these works. The July Revolution cannot be presented simply as the "Bourgeois Revolution" in a sentence in the introductory lecture. Its import to the student of French literature goes beyond the glorification of the wealthy class and the enunciation of Guizot's panacea: "Enrichissez-vous!" For our purposes it must be investigated more closely as a revolution which aborted, one in which the bourgeoisie cheated the rabble out of its victory, leaving it bewildered but anxious to try its hand again. The upper bourgeoisie had climbed into the saddle and intended to remain there. But it was not to be easy; the king was most insecurely on his throne. We need the background of riots to understand the urgency of many of the writers, for they were on the side of the liberals. Examples like the bloody revolt of the Lyon silk workers in 1831 will help to illuminate Hugo's interest in the *peuple* in *Notre-Dame de Paris*, the humanitarian interest in the *Destinées de la poésie*.

The government was refusing to recognize the new needs of the industrial era. And we need evidence that France was entering upon that era. We must feel the presence of social reformers like the Saint-Simonians, of

revolutionaries like Louis Blanc, of liberals like Lamennais. Our students should understand the terror of the government before the uprisings in the Vendée in 1832, uprisings attempting to restore the Bourbons; or its equally burning fears before the republican riots in Paris in this same year. Then they can evaluate the return to censorship in 1835, the more urgently demanded after Fieschi attempted to assassinate the king! Now—and now only—does the bitterness of *Le Roi s'amuse* make sense. Against this background, Vigny's *Chatterton* (1835) comes into focus as an attack on the new bourgeoisie. And it is in the context of still further riots in Lyon in 1834 that Hugo's famous line becomes meaningful, the line with which he opened the *Chants du crépuscule* (1835):

De quel nom te nommer, heure trouble où nous sommes?

So prepared, the student can approach the works he reads with real understanding. So trained, he may bring his understanding of history to the consideration of the world about him: perhaps ours is not the only *heure trouble* in history, after all.

But we must push further. These same years saw the publication of many other works, these, too, major ones. And they are significant in their divergence from Romanticism. Stendhal published *Le Rouge et le noir* in 1830. The book pays its toll to the age in which it appears: Julien Sorel's creator did not live in the Romantic era for nothing. But Stendhal himself knew that he would not be understood for many years. It is highly suggestive that this book, so far outside Romanticism, could be written now: history is not divided into neat, orderly compartments. And Balzac published *Eugénie Grandet* in 1833, *Père Goriot* in 1835; Sainte-Beuve published *Volupté* in the latter year. In the works of these two men, published at the height of Romanticism, literary historians see the birth of the realistic and the psychological novel. By stressing the suggestion that it is typical to find such different movements overlapping in time, crowding each other about in most disorderly fashion, by hammering this thought at our students with the same vigor with which we have heretofore pounded the notion of the even progression of harmonious development, we may give to our students a clearer, a truer notion of what the past has been. We may hope that they will move forward to their own day, fortified and enlightened by this concept as they consider their own confused and clashing world.

Actually, of course, we could extend our scope considerably further. If only in passing we could make mention of our sister arts. During these years Delacroix painted notable canvasses; so did Gérard. Ingres was continuing to uphold an older tradition akin in many ways to the doctrine of the neo-classics in literature, a group we have completely neglected in our presentation . . . but somewhere we must draw the line. On the other hand, remaining still within painting, both Corot and Rousseau completed

major works in these years and in wholly new styles. Perhaps aided by slides, we should branch out and show to our students that similarly complex problems exist in the development of painting. And Delacroix' color can help us to explain Hugo's if we are fortunate enough to have good colored reproductions available. Teachers of literature would do well to make theirs a broad cultural course if they wish to merit the respect of the American student of 1950.

Ideally, this program must envision a new approach not only to teaching the history of literature, but also to the overburdened teacher who is asked to conduct the course. Graduate training must be revised to make our teachers better able to step outside the confines of literature and into the broad stream of history which they are, potentially, so well qualified to discuss. The problem is two-fold. On the one hand, more room must be made in the doctoral program for courses outside the language-and-literature departments. The new instructor needs at least a bowing acquaintance with the history, the art and music, the philosophy, of his chosen area if he is to embark upon the teaching of a course such as we have outlined. In the small span of years which I have used as an example, music and philosophy are perhaps not indispensable. But had we moved later in the century, Bergson and Debussy would have had to appear or be sadly missed. Somehow we must give body to the concept that all things are interrelated; somehow we must become aware that our isolation within esthetics is as artificial and as ill-conceived as a history course dealing solely with wars and treaties. We have all commented caustically upon the narrowness of our colleagues in other disciplines. Let us not be even more guilty than they!

A practical problem intrudes itself: one can demand only so much and no more from our graduate students. How may they be asked to acquire this vast body of material? Some of it can find its way into our present courses. Part of it may be acquired through the painful means used by all teachers-in-service, though additional study on the job. I feel reasonably sure that none of us, proudly armed with his doctorate, has been able to go forth to teach others without discovering that there were sad lacunae in his preparation, major areas which he had to work up in a rush to meet the demands of even a freshman survey course. Our students must be urged to enter upon the study of these correlative domains in their years after acquiring the magic talisman of the degree.

But this alone will not suffice. We must also recognize that the conventional requirements for the doctorate need reconsideration. No student who has had sound linguistic training will deny its value and relevance to his teaching of literature. But will he maintain that all of it was important, all necessary? My colleagues who are linguists will maintain that, at best, we students of literature are profane barbarians in matters linguistic. But perhaps it is time for us teachers of literature to stand forth boldly and

say that an intimate acquaintance with the development of Latin long *o* before a palatal in a language which was only a minor to us has done us, quite literally, no good whatsoever, however intriguing it may have been in itself. May we not say—if not shout—that the time has come to put an end to this business?

If our literature students are freed from an undue burden of linguistics, time becomes available to train them in a broader cultural base within their own area. Then they may embark upon the sort of program they will need to teach the courses I have suggested. Even more painful excisions, however, may be necessary: perhaps we will have to reconsider the basic literary training now given to our graduate students in order to make available the time that this program needs. Here, where it hurts to cut, I would not presume to offer suggestions outside my own area, the Romance literatures, in which the doctoral program revolves about French, Italian and Spanish. Normally, one of these literatures is to be known well (the major), one less well (the minor) and the third, if I may so phrase it, even less well. Might our graduate students be better prepared to teach interested students interestingly if they knew one language and its culture really well and only one other literature, "even less well"? The superficial knowledge of the second literature would, I venture to suggest, be adequate to prepare the future Ph. D. to teach the language involved. And so prepared, I suspect that he would be as attractive to prospective presidents, deans and chairmen as is the current product who can claim only that if you will guarantee to isolate literature entirely from life he can give a good course on the sonnet.

B. F. BART

University of Michigan

*What Is Blocking International Understanding?**

IS IT Modernism, Conservatism, Reactionary Brutalism, Communism, Nazism, Fascism, Americanism, or any other of these "isms"? All these "isms" are of doubtful usefulness, and their justification of existence is only the obvious endeavor to find names for something, which is not at all so clear in formulation and content. If you have to find a name for something you can be sure it's already under suspicion. Even Americanism, I beg your pardon, is not a very clearly defined expression. It can be good, could be, and sometimes, has been, even bad. For instance, our chronic inclinations to lose the peace after we made supreme efforts to win the war, that too is something we could call nowadays, "Americanism." But, all these "isms" are not at all blocking "International Understanding." We shouldn't fool ourselves. All these problems, which are blocking "International Understanding" are much more deeply connected with our ways of life.

You know as well as I, that it is not so important what we do. For better analysis of our mistakes we have to investigate what we don't do. One of these negative qualities, if I might say so, is the fact, that the whole world has certainly not enough respect for greatness. This is a leading problem of tremendous consequence. The lack of enough respect for knowledge, ethics, and integrity are undeniable hindrances to peaceful endeavors. People think usually of reasons of a political nature, of differences in "Weltanschauung" (of contemplations of life), of global problems or geo-political conspiracies of tremendous extent, if they are talking about forces blocking "Understanding." But politics and similar "Cultural Interventions" cannot block and not achieve "International Understanding." But if we really investigate and look earnestly and objectively into this very important matter, we will be shocked, how small and banal most of these reasons are, which are causing effects of gigantic dimension.

I don't want to deny, that dilettantism and amateurism in important national matters are not of great advantage. If persons take care of our affairs, who are not sufficiently informed, not capable enough, not intellectual enough, not sufficiently educated, not sincere enough, not honest enough, not unselfish enough,—if such persons, and that happens some-

* Lecture given at the Third University of Kentucky Foreign Language Conference, May 11-13, 1950.

times, will handle too often most important problems, it certainly will not improve "International Understanding." But in spite of the importance of these failures, they are not really the true blocking agents of "International Understanding." "Bad manners, Megalomania, Ignorance, Self Complacency, Prejudice, and all the human inefficiencies and weaknesses like Greediness, Egoism and Hypocrisy" *are* seriously blocking "International Understanding." These formidable forces mentioned above, have always been the most valiant fighters against human progress and happiness, most efficiently expressed in mankind's fundamental humanitarian word, "Peace." Nowadays the whole world has not enough respect for the "Nucleus of Humanity," "Responsibility." If one electron, to speak in fashionable atomic terms, if one electron after another is expelled from the all embracing "Atom Humanity," the new goddess "Expediency" in matters of morality will finally smash the indivisible fundamental spiritual atom and will deal the death blow to humanity. If we would just realize that nothing will prove more impractical than expediency, nothing more practical than idealism, then some sparks of hope would be still existent. But, we are so horribly confused all over the world. Are we still rational, sensible? A weapon, which makes destruction more horrible IS no weapon at all—certainly not for achieving peace. A weapon for peace would be something which makes destruction or attack *impossible*.

If the whole world would use all the efforts for construction, which are usually used for the inventive creation of destruction, how fast would we advance? A tragic degeneration seems to be developing in the whole world: "We certainly forget faster than we learn." History hasn't helped us, nor all the other nations. We can see anarchistic traits everywhere. Who cares what the other fellow is doing if "he" is just satisfied? That's as true of individuals as it is of entire peoples and nations. For instance, one of the major reasons for broken marriages is the tendency of newlyweds, in their desire for freedom, to move away from their families and old friends. The ideal of family existence is discarded, here and all over the world. There we have this dangerous anarchistic spark among the individuals, freedom, without too much responsibility. It works just the same way among the greater families, the nations.

All our deficiencies which I mentioned before, mislead us and the whole world, to use usually all cultural inventions for uncultural purposes. If you think of "Gerhard Hauptmann's Die Weber" you will realize that this horrible attitude toward inventions is nothing new nowadays. Cultural greatness in inventions was never used, certainly not primarily, to improve in a humane way the lot of the "human being." But in a general way, *it is the degree of prosperity of the human being*, physically, economically and spiritually which decides "the to be or not to be" of "International Understanding."

Conceit and wrong pride are some of the other road-blocks to understanding. Goethe's human greatness, his humble attitude, free from conceit, this basic curse of mankind and the main source of all evil, is wonderfully expressed in his words: "Was du ererbt von deinen Vaetern, erwirb es um es zu besitzen." That means: "what you inherited from your forefathers, your ancestors, work for it again, strive for it anew, so that you can really possess it as your own."

What he wants to say is just: "Don't be too proud of things which you didn't build up, where your own merit is not involved, don't look down at the other fellow, who is less fortunate than you, or is poor. Maybe his father was not so capable, or not so lucky or maybe not so unscrupulous. That's true, also, for nations. "What you inherited, strive for it again," of course don't strive or fight for "*everything*" which you inherited. If the whole world would learn from Goethe, then our present generations all over the world wouldn't be so proud of things which they possess without any merit of their own. "Dummheit und Stolz wachsen auf einem Holz": Pride and Ignorance grow on the same tree, or Pride and Ignorance are akin. There would be less snobbishness, and less self-complacency and the road for mutual understanding would be free from misleading unconstructive exaggerated pride. Such I could see a hope for return to *decency all over the world. That's "Understanding."*

What can we do about it? How can we further a solution of these problems? Do we need an organization to straighten out our schools so that they can serve the most important purpose—"Peace?" Do we realize that leadership to "International Understanding" cannot be in the hands of politicians and must be taken up by teachers on a most ethical and altruistical basis? Citizens of today are discovering, that they have to do something for the greatest public problem, "the citizens of tomorrow." Inertia has long, too long, ignored the significance of the three-fold problem: "School, Peace, Teachers."

The teaching profession has been for a long time the most neglected profession in the world. In this respect, one of our "isms," "Americanism" didn't prove to be too idealistic and benevolent. If all the teachers of the world would and could live up to the expectation and the integrity of the pedagogical ideals, if they would not only *be* the backbone of the nation, but would also insist on being accepted and appreciated as such, no war would be possible, and "International Understanding" would become a natural consequence of teaching. Facts, which are hindering the development of such a "teaching elite" are created by the uncaptalistic attitude of our United States, if the salaries of teachers are considered and by the undemocratic attitude of the other nations, if the global interests are concerned. We hear so much about loyalty of teachers. A good teacher has to be loyal, first of all to his mission as a teacher. His approach has to be

based in all matters on integrity, honesty, and loyalty to humanity. Living up to such standards must signify that the teacher is the most loyal citizen; but from such a stand-point of highest integrity, honesty and loyalty to humanity, some teachers might be not as loyal as they should be expected to be in matters of humanity. They are loyal, of course, as political citizens. But are they loyal as the most important backbone of the nation? One Illinois educational journal said recently that teachers need loyalty from "the top to the bottom." That seems to imply that teachers are not loyal. It is funny to read such irresponsible things in an educational journal. The American teachers have been always more loyal than all the other citizens of the United States. But many of those who are in charge of teachers, the public and their mouth-pieces need, certainly need, loyalty from the "top to the bottom" toward the teachers. "Anybody in a capitalistic nation, who receives less than he should get on the basis of a just return for a big investment, is involved in a communistic process. *Persons or organizations*, paying teachers "communistically" low salaries are involving teachers in a communistic process and therefore must be considered as the instigators of most un-American activities.

I believe that peace can be served most efficiently, if we would create a world teacher's association. Such an organization of teachers, and the language teachers among them, as the most important go-betweens, could become the fundamental basis for the teachings of peace and understanding on a world-wide basis.

I realized during my military service at Nuremberg as a member of the International Military Tribunal in charge of liaison between the German Defense and the Tribunal, that teachers of higher learning (most of the appointed persons were teachers) could easily get along peacefully and contribute a lot to mutual understanding and respect.

Therefore, after having given you many *reasons* for the world-wide failure of creating "International Understanding," I must insist now, that the most important *cause* of the futility of peaceful endeavors all over the world are the teachers of today. Yes, ladies and gentlemen, the teachers. The teacher is, or at least should be the backbone of the nation, of society, of the continent, of the world. But what is the teacher nowadays? He is the least appreciated, least paid, least capitalistically treated individual, at least in some nations, among those, we take a most predominant place. If all the teachers, would be and could be the elite, the elite in ethical endeavors, the elite in mental capacity, the elite in humanity, and if all those teachers would teach with a real humanitarian loyalty, then we shouldn't have to worry about peace and "International Understanding." If all those shocking deficiencies which I mentioned above, were conquered by our teaching, if the word peace were to be ten thousand times more often used than war, if a world teacher's assembly would lay the foundation

for a real peaceful humanitarian teaching level for mankind, if an "understanding between all the peoples" were the basic foundation and purpose of teaching, how could we have war?

If the teachers of the whole world have the proper place in society and if society finally realizes, that a teacher must represent culture, if he is to be capable of doing a proficient job, we will be on the way to "International Understanding" and peace. I must emphasize that a country can be called really cultural only if the teachers have the proper place in society, esteem and evaluation. The teacher has to be the non-political continuity of humanitarian endeavor, without of course assuming that a teacher has to stand outside of political opinions.

I think, it is not necessary to emphasize that training in foreign languages is the most important problem for our United States but also for the whole world, to avoid another war. We know from our experiences during the last war, that at least "those foreign languages" have been of vital importance for victorious military operations. But now, we have to proceed one step further: "If we can *avoid* a war through the effective use of foreign languages, we will give to mankind the greatest invention, stronger even and better than hydrogen bombs, certainly not destructive but constructive. May I once more quote Goethe: "Alles, was sich unter Menschen im hoeheren Sinne ereignet, muss aus dem ethischen Standpunkt betrachtet, beschaut und beurteilt werden." That means: "everything which happens among humans in a higher sense, must be considered, looked at, and judged from an ethical standpoint." "Wer immer strebend sich bemueht, den koennen wir erloesen." I believe it can be done, if we strive for it.

A tentative solution might raise further problems. Therefore, it is a great temptation to concentrate on a single dramatic solution for our dilemma: "All, that is blocking *International Understanding* can be removed and defeated by a *United Army* of teachers of the whole world, irrevocably resolved to teach *Peace*."

FELIX EDWARD SHARTON

Westminster College

Tampa Spanish: Three Characters in Search of a Pronunciation

TWO recent studies of the Spanish vocabulary of Tampa, Florida, have shown the extent to which the vitally dominant English-language environment has impoverished the lexical background of the Hispanic elements of the city.* These same articles reveal, too, the gracious smile and yet picaresque nature of the whimsically-minded Spanish-speaking people of all times. Of definite historical importance, however, is the fact that the pronunciation, accentuation and intonation of this Spanish that has suffered the encroachment of so many English words is still truly Hispanic. It is not only the "accent" of genuine Spanish but, as used by three generations of "tampeños," it becomes a recapitulation of the development of Spanish pronunciation in the Colonial Period. We have represented in the characters of three generations the continuity and tenacity of the phoneme in a basic nucleus population group—a linguistic drama in one act!

As one walks down the street in Ybor City, Tampa's main Hispanic section, he is intrigued by the many evidences of the culture of Spain and Cuba. There is the Centro Español, the Centro Asturiano, the Círculo Cubano; there are Spanish newspapers, there are restaurants that serve yellow rice and chicken and garbanzo soup; one hears of an illegal lottery, the *bolita*, and in some of the shops there is a sign: *English Spoken Here*.

Standing on a street corner are three men with a common name: Fernández. All are residents of this "Latin" section of Tampa. The oldest of the three was born in the province of Asturias, Spain. He has lived in Tampa more than forty years, having arrived via Cuba as a youth of about twenty. No. 2 Fernández is a college graduate and a respecter of family traditions. He was born in Tampa some thirty years ago of Galician parents. Fernández number 3 is a youngster of sixteen—a real man-about-town in his own eyes. He was born in Tampa, so were his parents. The family was of Asturian origin.

As one saunters by the little group one hears a brief conversation something on the order of the following, in which the "distinguishing" features of pronunciation are indicated by italics and described in notes:

* F. C. Hayes, "Anglo-Spanish Speech in Tampa, Florida," *Hispania*, XXXII, pp. 48-52. Carmen L. Ortiz, "English Influence on the Spanish of Tampa," *Hispania*, XXXII, pp. 300-303.

Fernández No. 1:—Es¹ como dij²e, vive en la primera call³e, a la iz⁴quierda.
¿No le cono⁵en ustedes¹?

Fernández No. 2:—Creo que le conoz⁶co. ¿No es⁶ el de los⁶ ojos⁶ az⁵ules⁶? Es⁶ mex⁷icano.

Fernández No. 3:—¿Hablan us⁸ted⁹e⁸s de és⁸te que es⁸tá detrás⁸? Pues⁸, és⁸te no es⁸ mexicano sino cos⁸tarric¹⁰ense.

A principle of the evolution of group pronunciation is to be seen in the brief conversation of the three Fernández men. It is the principle of the steadfastness and vitality of the nucleus pronunciation in the face of incursions from other quarters. Just as the Spaniard from Andalucía and Extremadura got to America "the firstest with the mostest,"¹¹ so the linguistic predecessors of Fernández No. 3 first settled Tampa with "the mostest," from Cuba by way of Key West, Fernández No. 2 represents the part of a transitional stage in the reversion to type.

Although Narváez and Fernando de Soto reached the region of present-day Tampa in 1528 and 1539 respectively, the pioneer North-American settlement was not made until the establishment of Fort Brooke in 1823. George Brooke, whose son later designed the *Merrimac*, was its first commander. Protection of the garrison encouraged immigration, but Tampa

¹ This man still has the "thick" apico-alveolar *s* which is typical of all of Spain except the Southwest. Cf. T. Navarro and A. Espinosa, "La frontera del andaluz," *RFE*, XX (1933), 225-277.

² The "jota" of this Northern Spaniard is very guttural, actually uvular, with much saliva.

³ No. 1 Fernández preserves the palatal lateral that is disappearing even among young people of Madrid, having gone out of style in Southern Spain centuries ago.

⁴ The "zeta" of this type of pronunciation is a forceful interdental, much more forceful than English voiceless *th*, our Spanish grammars to the contrary.

⁵ The "zeta" of the second Fernández is a milder sort, more like the *th* of English. It is closer in sound to his *s*.

⁶ The greatest difference between the first Fernández and the second is to be found in the articulation of the *s*. While the *s* of the older man had a definite *timbre chuintant*, that of the second gave the impression of the fine dental sibilant that one hears in Mexico and other part of Highland Spanish America: an *s* of high resonance.

⁷ The "jota" of this person is also more delicate: palatal rather than uvular.

⁸ No. 3 Fernández "eats" most of the sibilants that would normally be heard at the end of the syllable. At times one hears a slight aspiration; at others, nothing. The general impression is one of carelessness, of *puro reloj*. His question might be rendered thus: "¿Hablan uhtee dehte quehtatrá?"

⁹ The *d* of this young man is "eaten" more often than in the speech of the other two, although it is quite weak intervocally in all three cases.

¹⁰ Except in the pre-consonantal and final position, this speaker has only one sibilant, a dental *s*, usually of dorso-alveolar articulation. His speech is typical American "costeño."

¹¹ Cf. Vivian Mercer, *Origins of New World Spanish Pronunciation*, Master's Thesis, Florida State University, 1948. Miss Mercer's statistics on the Peninsular origins of Spanish colonists refer to over 15,000 individuals who came to America in the Sixteenth Century. See also P. Henríquez Ureña's figures, *RFE*, XVIII, 120-148 and those of A. V. Neasham, *Hisp. Amer. Hist. Rev.*, XIX, 147-161.

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was to suffer the blockade of the Union forces during the Civil War and the ravages of yellow fever in 1873. Henry Plant's South Florida Railroad, later the Atlantic Coast Line, which was built in 1884, put the city on the way to rapid growth. Tampa survived the days of the Spanish-American War, when Colonel Theodore Roosevelt and his rough riders trained in the backyard of the Tampa Bay Hotel.¹²

In 1886 the cigar industry, experiencing labor troubles in Key West, moved to Tampa with thousands of Cuban and Spanish employees. The pioneer colony, founded by Vicente Martínez Ybor, retains the "native" customs, the squalor as well as the beauty and gayety of the original Ybor City. The pioneer cigar factory attracted others and by the early 20's there was a flourishing business in the manufacture of "high-class hand-made Havana cigars." The Fernández families came in by the hundreds, as did the Sánchez, Delgados and Arias. Some came directly from Spain, others from Spain by way of Cuba, many from Cuba. The "Latin" section has grown to over 30,000 inhabitants and now includes thousands of Italian origin.¹³

Which Fernández is going to win this linguistic struggle?¹⁴

It won't be necessary to wait for the next installment of this exciting story. No. 3 Fernández has already won. Whether he knows it or not, he has on his side the tremendous forces of social suggestion which will maintain the historical continuity of the nucleus traits, which stem all the way from Southern Spain, and whose essence is *relajación*.

It would seem that in matters of pronunciation there is no such thing as a melting pot. The basic elements of *antaño* become the basic elements of *hogaño*. The great force of cohesion and consistency in this evolution is social suggestion.

As in Tampa, Florida, today, so in the Hispanic world of the Sixteenth Century, the fad and its numerous constituents were powerful factors in the establishment of something that later came to be called Spanish American.

D. LINCOLN CANFIELD

Florida State University

¹² Cf. *Florida*, American Guide Series, New York, Oxford, 1947, p. 286.

¹³ Cf. F. C. Hayes, *op. cit.*, p. 48, note 3.

¹⁴ Actually the three Fernández men represent hundreds of speakers to whom this writer has talked in Tampa and at the two large State universities, Florida State University and the University of Florida. Among the students of these two universities he has found no Fernández No. 1, a few No. 3 types, many No. 2 Fernández. The parents of our Tampa students furnish the source of Fernández No. 1.

American Doctoral Degrees Granted in the Field of Modern Languages in 1950

<i>Name</i>	<i>Major Field</i>	<i>Title of Thesis</i>	<i>Date of Receiving Degree</i>
<i>Brown University</i>			
Merle Lester Perkins	Romance	Perpetual peace: Study of an eighteenth century project by the Abbé de Sainte-Pierre	June, 1950
<i>Bryn Mawr College</i>			
Esther Buchen Pese	French	Baudelaire: Poet in Prose	June 6, 1950
Heinz Politzer	German	Studies on Jewish Contributors to German Literature: Heine and Börne	June 6, 1950
<i>The Catholic University of America</i>			
Sister Mary Ursula Clark	French	The Cult of Enthusiasm in French Romanticism	June, 1950
Tatiana Z. Fotitch	French	The Narrative Tenses in Chrétien de Troyes. A Study in Syntax and Stylistics	June 1950
Sister Mary Julie Maggioni	French	The <i>Pensées</i> of Pascal. A study in Baroque Style.	June 1950
<i>University of Chicago</i>			
John McCarty Sharp	Spanish	Sources, Ideology, and Authorship of "El Cróton"	Dec. 16, 1949
Jean Autret	French	Ruskin et Proust	Sept. 1, 1950
Donald Leroy Fabian	Spanish	A Critical Analysis of the Novels of Ramon Pérez de Ayala	Sept. 1, 1950
Louis Leal	Spanish	El cuento y la leyenda en <i>Las crónicas de la Nueva España</i>	Sept. 1, 1950
<i>University of Cincinnati</i>			
Gabriele Muncker	German	War in Literature of the 17th Century	June 9, 1950
Rudolf Syring	German	Jean Pauls Geistesverwandtschaft mit der Expressionisten des Zwanzigsten Jahrhunderts	June 9, 1950
Justus Rosenberg	German	The German Translations of Paul Verlaine's Lyric Poetry	June 9, 1950
<i>Columbia University</i>			
Frederick C. Ahrens	Germanic Languages	The Chronicon of Conrad Pellican, 1478-1556	May 24, 1950

<i>Name</i>	<i>Major Field</i>	<i>Title of Thesis</i>	<i>Date of Receiving Degree</i>
Helen P. Bailey	French	Hamlet in France	Jan. 27, 1950
Edward J. Brown	Slavic Languages	The Russian Association of Proletarian Writers	May 26, 1950
Ruben Cohen	French	Balzac in the United States during the 19th Century	Mar. 15, 1950
Eugene Dorfman	French and Romance Philology	The Roland and the Cid	May 24, 1950
James O. Ferrell	Slavic Languages	The Participles and Gerunds in Pushkin's Prose	May 10, 1950
Seymour L. Flaxman	Germanic Languages	The Life and Works of Herman Heijermans	May 25, 1950
Marcel M. Gutwirth	French	Revelation and Reality in Proust's Novel	Apr. 26, 1950
William E. Harkin	Slavic Languages	The Russian Folk Epos in Czech Literature 1800-1900	Mar. 29, 1950
George F. Jones	Germanic Languages	Realism and Social Structure in Wittenwiler's <i>Ring</i>	May 12, 1950
Dorothy S. Loos	Spanish	The Naturalistic Novel of Brazil	May 25, 1950
Horace G. Lunt II	Slavic Languages	The Sound Pattern of 11th Century Russian	Apr. 20, 1950
Ruth R. Murdoch	French	Newton's Law of Attraction and the French Enlightenment	Apr. 13, 1950
Leon S. Roudiez	French	Charles Maurras: the Formative Years	Mar. 1, 1950
Herbert Rubenstein	Slavic Languages	A Comparative Study of the Morphophonemic Alternations of Standard Serbo-Croatian Czech	June 10, 1949
William Granger Ryan	Italian	Humanism and Religion in Petrarch	May 5, 1950
Stanley M. Sapon	French and Romance Philology	A Study of the Development of the Interrogative in Spanish from the 12th through the 15th Centuries	June 7, 1949
Samuel E. Scalia	Italian	Luigi Capuana and His Times	Feb. 4, 1950
Anthony Tudisco	Spanish	America in 18th Century Spanish Literature, 1700-1808	May 25, 1950
Seymour S. Weiner	French	Francis Carco, the Career of a Literary Bohemian	May 15, 1950
Alfred J. Wright, Jr.	French	Paul Verlaine and the Musicians	May 25, 1950
Richard T. Burgi	Slavic Languages	The History of the Russian Hexameter	May 31, 1949
<i>University of Colorado</i> Hazel Marie Messimore	Modern Languages and Literatures: Spanish	Manuel Gálvez	June 10, 1950

<i>Name</i>	<i>Major Field</i>	<i>Title of Thesis</i>	<i>Date of Receiving Degree</i>
<i>Cornell University</i>			
John Iwanik	Spanish	A Study of the Abnormal Characters in the Novels of Benito Pérez Galdós	June, 1950
Alma Taylor Watkins	Spanish	Eroticism in the Novels of Felipe Trigo	June, 1950
David Lockwood Olmstead	Slavic Languages	The Phonology of Polish	June, 1950
<i>Harvard University</i>			
Aldo S. Bernardo	Romance	Artistic Procedures Followed by Petrarch in Making the Collection of the <i>Familiars</i>	Mar., 1950
Peter M. Boyd-Bowman	Romance Languages	A Linguistic Study of the Spanish of Guanajuato, Mexico	Mar., 1950
Carl L. Ebeling	Slavic Languages	The Parts of the Sentence in Modern Russian: A Structural Analysis	June, 1950
John M. Fein	Romance Languages	Eugenio de Castro and the Development of Cosmopolitanism in Hispanic Poetry	Mar., 1950
Lionel F. Friedman	Romance Languages	One of the "Happy Few" in America: The American Voyage of Victor Jacquemont	June, 1950
Arthur P. Gardner	Germanic Languages and Literatures	The Individual and Society in the Works of Heinrich Mann: The Development of the Political Author	June, 1950
Joseph Gauthier	Romance Languages	<i>La Revue Blanche</i> (1891-1903) and Its Influence on the Dramatic, and Literary Currents of Its Time	June, 1950
Ernest A. Johnson, Jr.	Romance Languages	Juan Antonio Pérez Bonalde, 1846-1892: A Biographical Study	June, 1950
Joseph Mileck	Germanic Languages and Literatures	Herman Hesse: A Study	June, 1950
Charles Sedgwick	Romance Languages	Unpublished Letters of French Actresses, 1798-1861: Mlle. Raucourt, Mme. Frédérick Lemaitre and Rachel	June, 1950
Seymour O. Simches	Romance Languages	The Taste for the XVIIIth Century before the Goncourts	June, 1950
James B. Wadsworth	Romance Languages	Marsilio Ficino's "Sopra lo Amore": an Introductory Study and a Text	June, 1950

<i>Name</i>	<i>Major Field</i>	<i>Title of Thesis</i>	<i>Date of Receiving Degree</i>
<i>State University of Iowa</i>			
Pauline Cook	Linguistics	A Bibliography of Spanish Linguistics: Articles in Serial Publications 1887-1947	June, 1949
Pasquale Leo Ferrara	French	Chateaubriand's Concepts of Human Perfection	Aug., 1949
Alexis Joseph Richards	Romance Languages	Exoticism in the Works of Pierre Loti	Aug., 1949
George Oswald Schanzer	Romance Languages	Vida y obras de Ernesto Herrera	Feb., 1950
Vernon J. Gingerick	French	La phrase de Flaubert étudiée dans <i>Madame Bovary</i>	June, 1950
Milton Zagel	German	The Family Problem in the Dramas of Friedrich Hebbel	Aug., 1950
Jack Chalmers Herman	Spanish	Don Quijote and the Novels of Pérez Galdós	June, 1950
<i>University of Maryland</i>			
Mrs. Zita Ponti	German	Critical Analysis of the Implementation of Rosenbergian National Socialism in the Field of History of Culture by Professor Hans Naumann	June, 1950
Myron Vent	German	Otto von Corvin—An Appraisal of the Man and His Works	Aug. 4, 1950
<i>University of Michigan</i>			
William Paul Giuliano	Romance Languages and Literatures	The Life and Works of Jacinto Grau	June, 1950
Robert Beattie Skelton	Romance Languages and Literatures	A Spectrographic Analysis of Spanish Vowel Sounds	June, 1950
<i>University of Montreal</i>			
Gérard Bessette	French	"Les Images en poésie canadienne-française"	June, 1950
Jadwiga Jurkszus	Slavic Studies	"Le Roman familial polonais comparé avec le même genre dans la littérature mondiale"	June, 1950
<i>University of North Carolina</i>			
George Cotton Smith Adams	Romance Languages French	Words and Descriptive Terms for "Woman" and "Girl" in French and Provençal Border Dialects	June, 1950
Frank Marion Duffey	Romance Languages Spanish	The <i>Cuadro de Costumbres</i> in Colombia (1838-1880)	June, 1950
Mary Jean Lemon Lee	Comparative Linguistics	An Etymological Dictionary of the Obwaldisch Dialect of Raeto-Romance	June, 1950

<i>Name</i>	<i>Major Field</i>	<i>Title of Thesis</i>	<i>Date of Receiving Degree</i>
Wm. Emile Strickland	Romance Languages French	The Speech of the Aubigny Sur Nère (Cher) region	June, 1950
Thomas Herbert Etzler	German	The Dallas Texas Volksblatt: a Contribution to the History of German Newspapers in Texas	Dec., 1949
Adolf Ernst Schroder	German	Rainer Maria Rilke's Attitude toward German Literature	June, 1950
<i>University of Ottawa</i>			
Brother Leo, S. H.	French-Canadian Literature	L'Oeuvre littéraire d'adjutor Rivard	June, 1950
Brother Lévis, S. H.	French-Canadian Literature	Le vaisseau d'or d'Emile Nelligan	June, 1950
Brother Louis Victor, S. H.	French-Canadian Literature	Adolphe Poisson, le barbe d'Arthabaska	June, 1950
Father Germain Lesage, O. M. I.	French-Canadian Literature	Le missionnaire errant, Mgr. Charlesbois, O.M.I.	June, 1950 (D. Litt.)
Waclaw Matejczyk	Polish Literature	Man and Society in the Works of Broniewski (Written in Polish)	June, 1950
<i>University of Pennsylvania</i>			
George B. Clemens	Romance Languages	A Tentative Portuguese Dictionary of Dated First Occurrences to the Year 1350	June, 1949
Robert Ivy, Jr.	Romance Languages	The Manuscript Relations of Malessier's Continuation of the Old French Perceval	June, 1949
Bruce W. Wardropper	Romance Languages	The Growth of the Auto Sacramental Before Calderón	June, 1949
Normal B. Spector	Romance Languages	Odet de Turnèbe. <i>Les Contens</i>	Feb., 1950
<i>Radcliffe College</i>			
Naomi C. A. Jackson	German	"Ernst Barlach: The Development of a Versatile Genius"	June, 1950
Elizabeth L. Towle	Romance Languages	"Chateaubriand and the Artists of His Time"	June, 1950
<i>Stanford University</i>			
Gunther Maurice Bonnin	Germanic Languages	Some Literary Aspects of the German Underground in the Third Reich	Sept., 1949
Daniel Catlin McCluney, Jr.	Germanic Languages	The Reception of the Gentleman Concept in Germany	Jan., 1950
Lawton Brain Kline	Spanish	A Metrical Study of the Cántigas de Santa María by Alfonso el Sabio	Apr., 1950

<i>Name</i>	<i>Major Field</i>	<i>Title of Thesis</i>	<i>Date of Receiving Degree</i>
Robert Hawkins Poole	Spanish	Women in Early Spanish Literature with Special Emphasis on the Women in the Medieval Spanish Ballad	Sept., 1949
<i>Syracuse University</i>			
Bruce R. Gordon	Romance Languages	French Literary Influence on Mexican Literature (1800-1868)	June, 1950
<i>University of Toronto</i>			
Robert Ludwig Kahn	German Literature	Kotzebue, His Social and Political Attitudes: The Dilemma of a Popular Dramatist in Times of Social Change	Feb., 1950
<i>University of Wisconsin</i>			
Carroll Lee Pell	French	The Literary Ideas of Friedrich-Melchior Grimm	Aug., 1949
Robert Riggs Brewster	German	Optic and Acoustic Elements in Poetic Works of Rainer Maria Rilke	Aug., 1949
Herman Ramras	German	Main Currents in American Criticism of Thomas Mann	Aug., 1949
Luisa Antonie Lenel	German	Einsamkeit im Werk Adalbert Stifter	Jan., 1950
Frederick John Beharriell	German	A Study of Goethe Biography	June, 1950
Erich Herbert Eichholz	German	Boccaccios Dekameron in der Deutschen Literatur bis zum Ausgang des Achtzehnten Jahrhunderts	June, 1950
Roberto Garza Sánchez	Spanish	The Theatre of Federico García Lorca	Aug., 1949
Edwin Clair Munro	Spanish	An Etymological Vocabulary of Military Terms in the Works of Alfonso X	
John Clarkson Dowling	Spanish	The Political Thought of Saavedra Fajardo—A Study of Seventeenth Century Attitudes Towards the Decline of Spain as World Power	June, 1950
Blanche Emma Goodell	Spanish	Manuel Tamayo y Baus: Sources and Aesthetics	June, 1950
William Holloway Roberts	Spanish	Manuel Ortiz Guerrero, Paraguayan Poet. A Biographical and Critical Study	June, 1950
<i>Yale University</i>			
Richard C. Anderson	French	Indian Romantic and Parnassian French Poetry	June, 1950
Nicholas C. Bodman	Chinese	A Linguistic Study of the <i>Shih Ming</i>	June, 1950

<i>Name</i>	<i>Major Field</i>	<i>Title of Thesis</i>	<i>Date of Receiving Degree</i>
Richard McC. Chadbourne	French	Ernest Renan and the Art of the Essay	June, 1950
Edith S. Gilmore (Mrs.)	German	Masaniello in German Literature	June, 1950
Sister Marie Louise Hubert	French	The Plan of Pascal's <i>Pensées</i>	June, 1950
John W. Kneller	French	Rousseau and the French Romantic Poets	June, 1950
J. Kenneth Linn	Japanese	The Imperial Edicts of the Shokunihongi	June, 1950
Reed G. Law	French	The Discovery of Pascal (1800-1840)	June, 1950
Thomas F. Magner	Russian	Consonantal Present Stems in Slavic	June, 1950
Robert G. Marshall	French	The Rôle of Love in the Comedy of Marivaux	June, 1950
Samuel E. Martin	Japanese	Morphophonemics of Standard Colloquial Japanese	June, 1950
Robert L. Nugent	French	Baudelaire's Literary Reputation in France, 1867-1892	June, 1950
Chester W. Obuchowski	French	Pacifism in the French Novel Between the World Wars	June, 1950
Frederick S. Reckert	Spanish	Galician Literature: a Study in Essential Romanticism	June, 1950
G. Raymond Shipmen	French	Louis Meigret (fl. 1550)	June, 1950
Charles Z. Wahl	French	Jean Giraudoux, a Twentieth Century Humanist	June, 1950
James I. Crump, Jr.	Chinese	Some Problems in the Language of the Shin-Bian Wu-Day Shyy Pyng-Huah	Jan., 1950
Francis G. Jarlett	French	Francisque Sarcey as a Dramatic Critic	Jan., 1950
Eleanor H. Jordan (Mrs.)	Japanese	The Syntax of Modern Colloquial Japanese	Jan., 1950
Edgar A. List	German	Luther's Attitude Toward Germany and the Germans	Jan., 1950
T. Warren Ramsey	French	Jules Laforgue and the Ironic Inheritance	Jan., 1950

ADDENDA¹*University of North Carolina*

Genevieve Jeannette Faucher	French	Héritage Littéraire du Limousin	Aug. 29, 1950
John Lawrence Hodges	German	The Treatment of Women, Love, and Marriage in the Works of Hans Sachs	Aug. 29, 1950

¹ These items were received between September 1 and September 15.

<i>Name</i>	<i>Major Field</i>	<i>Title of Thesis</i>	<i>Date of Receiving Degree</i>
Joseph Candler Hutchinson	French	A Critical Edition of the B Version of the <i>Vie de Saint Grégoire</i> , with Introduction, Variants and Glossary	Aug. 29, 1950
<i>University of Pittsburgh</i> Joseph Vittorio Greco	Spanish	A Parallel Study of Dante's <i>Divina Commedia</i> and Imperial's <i>Dezyr a las syete Virtudes</i>	Feb., 1950
Jane Rollings Laird <i>University of Illinois</i> ²	German	Johann Arndt: An Evaluation	Feb., 1950
Ralph Marion Perry	French	The Final Textual Revision of An- toine de La Salle's <i>Le Petit Jehan de Saintré</i>	

Compiled by MARION MILLER

² Received November 20, 1950.

Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology for 1949

Compiled by JAMES B. THARP, *Ohio State University*

(with the collaboration of Mary Louise Gow, Martin's Ferry, Ohio; Helen W. Machan, Kent State University; Chris N. Nacci, Capital University; and A. Wayne Wonderley, Ohio State University)

THE annual article which summarized the literature of modern language pedagogy was a feature of the *Modern Language Journal* from its inception. The first of such bibliographies appeared in the first issue, October 1916, when Carl A. Krause listed 34 items which had been published in 1915, of which six were books or pamphlets. As this article is marked "No. 3," two former summaries must have been published elsewhere.

The series ended in the issue of May 1946, with the 1945 bibliography of 209 items, compiled by Winthrop Rice and his helpers. It was mainly the increase in publishing costs at the time that caused this valuable teaching aid to be dropped. Publication of the series in the *Journal* will now be resumed.

There can be no claim that all materials published have been briefed here and we apologize to any omitted author. Only the materials available in Ohio State University libraries and in personal collections of the compilers are reported. We have omitted the two-volume report of the Chicago Investigation of the Teaching of a Second Language, which is dated 1948. Likewise, the materials in the revision of *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, dated 1950, is left for the next article.

Attention should be called to the new periodical *Language Learning, A Quarterly Journal of Applied Linguistics*, which began in 1948. Sponsored by a group at the University of Michigan, several of them on the staff of the English Language Institute, the modest 32-page journal emphasizes general linguistics and problems of teaching English as a foreign language, but many articles merit reading by teachers of other modern languages.

The arrangement of the 155 items of this article reverts to the twenty topical classifications used by the writer for the 1940-41, 1941-42, 1942-43 bibliographies and continued by Dr. Machan, who compiled the 1943-44 listing, and by Winthrop Rice, who compiled the 1943-44 and the 1945 bibliographies. The periodicals which yielded articles for 1949, with the number of items from each, are listed below with the identifying code letters used in the list. After each topical heading are listed, by finding numbers, other items which treat the topic in part. At the end is given an authors' index, arranged alphabetically.

The writer desires to thank the collaborators whose combined efforts left only certain editorial work for the writer. It may be noted that Item No. 37 reports the five-year *Analytical Bibliography for 1937-42*, the third in the series, publication of which was delayed seven years. Whether or not other volumes ever appear, it is hoped that this "annual" article will now continue to come out annually.

- ATP: *Arizona Teacher-Parent* (1)
 *: Books and Pamphlets
 BAAUP: *Bulletin of American Association of University Professors* (1)
 CJ: *Classical Journal* (1)
 CO: *Classical Outlook* (2)
 ERB: *Educational Research Bulletin* (2)
 FR: *French Review* (17)
 GQ: *German Quarterly* (13)
 H: *Hispania* (10)
 HE: *Higher Education* (3)
 HP: *High Points* (2)
 JCJ: *Junior College Journal* (1)
 SE: *Secondary Education* (1)
 Soc. E: *Social Education* (1)
 SR: *School Review* (2)
 JE: *Journal of Education* (2)
 JEL: *Journal of Education* (London) (1)
 LL: *Language Learning* (12)
 MDU: *Monatshefte für Deutschen Unterricht* (7)
 ME: *Montana Education* (2)
 MLF: *Modern Language Forum* (1)
 MLJ: *Modern Language Journal* (53)
 NS: *Nation's Schools* (1)
 O: *Occupations* (1)
 OS: *Ohio Schools* (2)
 PS: *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology* (1)
 SA: *School Activities* (2)
 SS: *School and Society* (5)
 TES: *Times Educational Supplement* (2)
 TO: *Texas Outlook* (1)

I. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES (15). See also: 16, 36, 42, 48, 57, 67, 104, 109, 111, 112, 114, 118, 121, 123, 135

- (Ed.): "A Note for Curriculum Reformers," SS, LXIX (Apr. 9, '49), 261. A resolution submitted by Senator Elmer Thomas (D. Okla.) which was referred to the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare. In this article the writer encourages American citizens to master foreign languages "as a means to facilitate the success of American peace-time policy."
- Clark, W. P.: "The Learning and Teaching of Foreign Languages," ME, XXV (Jan. '49), 12-13. The writer points out that progress in recognition learning and use of language, whether for speaking or reading, is much easier and faster than for reproduction of the language. He concludes that since language signals for so highly-developed a language as English are so many, most of us should spend time trying to master English rather than try to acquire a second language.
- Huebener, Theodore: "Shall We Train Our Students for Vocational Use of Foreign Languages?" FR, XXII (Mar. '49), 394. Provision must be made not only in private schools and colleges but also in the secondary schools for the gifted student who wishes to prepare himself for foreign trade and government service.
- Koch, Ernest: "Foreign Languages and the Planning Mind," MLJ, XXXIII (May '49), 371-373. Foreign languages are under attack from several sources; progressive planners find languages unrealistic and relegate them to be electives; students show antipathy in low enrollment figures and by their hostility to language requirements for scientific courses. This is often due to the student failing to acquire sufficient reading familiarity or cultural development for his ends. If foreign languages are to remain in the curriculum, they must operate actively in the life of the student. Concentration in the language must be on the reading aim, developed quickly, with meaningful materials.
- Ornstein, Jacob: "Foreign Language and the Postwar Era," JCJ (Jan. '49), 250-252. According to the writer the emphasis in the teaching of foreign languages has shifted since World War II from a reading to a speaking approach. "It is hoped that the study of spoken languages may be an effective instrument in forging the ideal of world peace and international co-operation."
- Phillips, Walter T.: "How Can We Make Our Teaching More Significant to Our Students?" MLJ, XXXIII (Feb. '49), 95-99. We must rethink our objectives in terms of existing classroom conditions, and attain these objectives to give our students and ourselves a sense of accomplishment. Most discussions of language objectives have been wishful thinking. Existing conditions in college show that the vast majority of our students take only one year of foreign-language work. Considering class meetings and size, the student receives about four hours of individual practice per year. Our goal must be to make this year educationally worthwhile. It is unrealistic to consider instilling a feeling for language or oral fluency in this limited time. Within a year we can attain the following: a reading knowledge, a thorough knowledge of language structure, the ability to comprehend the spoken language, limited ability in self-expression, and a good understanding of foreign life and culture.
- Purin, Charles M.: "Our Educational Fallacies," GQ, XXII (Mar. '49), 71-74. The teaching of realia should be carried on in the vernacular and should precede regular language work. Elementary texts graded as to vocabulary frequency and as to syntax

difficulty should be used. The multiple-sense approach is the only sound procedure. Author deplores insufficiently prepared teachers and issuance of blanket certificates.

8. Schreiber, William I.: "The Oral Approach to Language Learning," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Feb. '49), 129-134. Our aims, goals and methods of language instruction are contradictory. We teach anything except what language implies, the spoken word. Hence the spoken language must become a unique experience in our classroom. The German department of Wooster College (Ohio) stresses pronunciation aided by dictation, individual and chorus reading, grammar, a minimum of translation, profuse amounts of blackboard work, literature and songs. Reading is for exactness and general comprehension. Classes are conducted almost exclusively in German. Success in speaking rests with the efficiency, character, intelligence and culture of the teacher. The oral approach to language is slower in showing results, but more sure and thorough.
9. Somer, Remunda: "A Credo for Foreign Language," *HP* (Jan. '49), 57-61. The writer feels that language teachers must stand as a vanguard against the dangers of a still almost imperceptible trend toward psychological self-sufficiency and isolationism in a highly involved world society.
10. Taylor, Ivan E.: "John Milton's Views on the Teaching of Foreign Languages," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Nov. '49), 528-536. John Milton severely condemns the Aristotelian or dialectical disputation method of instruction. In the case of Latin, the rules should be taught in the native tongue until the language is understood. Teaching should be "made as easy as the nature of the subject will admit." Correct pronunciation is essential. Foreign language study is not an ornament but a useful activity to acquire the "solid things" in culture of other lands. Milton's principles are those in general use today: basic rules of the language should be taught first, the text should be in the native tongue, and the student proceeds speedily to an application of rules learned by speaking and reading the foreign language.
11. Wade, Ira O.: "Foreign Languages for What?" *MLF* (Sept.-Dec. '49). Dr. Wade points out the trend toward decreasing the amount of foreign language instruction required for entrance to college and he points out also that the time for justification of language teaching is at hand. In harmony with this idea he states several objectives of modern foreign language teaching in an attempt to justify them.
12. White, Margaret Emilie: "Experiment in Language Study," *JE*, (Mar. '49). Miss White advocates a more functional, utilitarian approach to the learning of a foreign language. "Strict grammar teaching is too much with us; we should aim for more practicality in language teaching."
13. Winchell, H. B.: "The Twofold Objective in the Modern Language Program of the U.S. Naval Academy," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Oct. '49), 445-449. In his official and social duties a naval officer has great need of fluency and comprehension of the spoken language of a foreign country, and an understanding of the foreign culture which can stimulate the friendship of foreign nationals toward the U.S. The practical objective of language skill emphasizes the oral practice in a two-year required course of Spanish, French, German, Russian, Portuguese, or Italian.
14. Wylie, Laurence: "Ideas Versus Accents: The French Department's Contribution to Liberal Education," *FR*, XXII (Mar. '49), 395-400. Our educational system has failed to develop philosophically critical minds. Even the first two years of French study must contribute to the awakening of intellectual curiosity and an understanding of French attitudes. Other valuable goals must be sacrificed since time is short. French teachers have a vital contribution to make to liberal education.
15. Zimmerman, Irene: "Language Occupations," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Dec. '49), 630-634. The travel careerist is an excellent occupation for the language student who wishes to render a socially constructive service. The importance of the American tourist in international goodwill is vital. Using the article "Careers in Travel" from the March 1949 *School and College Placement* as her source, the author describes possible positions (travel agency assistant or manager, travel advisor, and tour conductor); and lists requirements as to age, sex, education, personality, health, and background.

II. ASTP, "ARMY METHOD," "INTENSIVE METHOD," "LINGUISTIC-INFORMANT METHOD" (5). See also: 38

16. Agard, Frederick B.: "The Cornell Language Program," *H* (Feb. '49), 27-34. The underlying assumptions of the plan are, in brief, the following: (1) present-day American society needs speakers, as well as readers, of foreign language among its educated members; (2) most college students of a foreign language want fully as much to learn to speak the language as to learn to read it; (3) if they are going to speak the language, they must be specifically taught to speak it; (4) if they are also going to read the language, they will become more efficient and more appreciative readers through first acquiring a degree

- of oral skill; but, at the same time, they cannot be expected to become automatically good readers without specific instruction and practice in reading.
17. Babcock, Edna E.: "The Native Informant in High-School Spanish Classes," H (Nov. '49), 507-509). Speaking Spanish with a native and hearing it spoken in the classroom provide experiences in language learning conducive to increased interest and progress for the pupils.
 18. "Aids to Language Study," SS, LXIX (No. 1801) (June 25, '49) 444-445. An explanation of an electronically-equipped Modern Language Laboratory at Cornell University designed to make the teaching and learning of foreign languages easier. It is patterned after the ASTP of the Army. There is also a short discussion of the Institute of Far Eastern Languages at Yale University.
 19. Harris, C. C.: "The Use of Mechanical Aids in the Language Program of L.S.U.," H (Feb. '49), 20-26. The new program is characterized by stress on the aural-oral aspects of the language throughout the first two semesters of study. This principle is predicated on the assumption that such an approach to the language yields better results than have been possible otherwise. To obtain this stress, L.S.U. uses a laboratory with a capacity of 1,500 students daily, and with facilities for doubling this capacity to 3,000 if necessary. There are 126 basic electronic machines which are made available to students for individual use one hour every day. Each machine is supplied with a set of L.S.U. records. In addition to the basic machines, there is some equipment used in clinical-aid work and research, which is housed in sound-proof studios. This equipment consists of various types of recording machines and duplicators. Classroom techniques and machine operation are described. This ambitious setup merits careful study by teachers and administrators.
 20. Harris, Julian: "Assumptions and Implementations of the 'Intensive Method,'" MLJ, XXXIII (Nov. '49), 520-527. The University of Wisconsin has adapted the intensive or ASTP method to civilian instruction in beginning courses of several languages. Students meet eight hours per week, four in lab sections. Compared with parallel sections using a modified grammar-reading method, the intensive sections rated higher in standardized tests (grammar, reading, and vocabulary) and oral-aural facility. The basic assumptions of the method are that language is something you do, and the natural way to learn a language is by using it.

III. AURAL-ORAL, CONVERSATION, PHONETICS, PRONUNCIATION (12).

See also: 8, 18, 19, 63, 66, 72, 79, 91, 92, 137, 141

21. Anthony, Ann: "Tools for Teaching Pronunciation," LL, II (Apr.-June '49), 36-40. A chart of *The Special Alphabet* of consonant and vowel sounds, each shown by an IPA symbol, a model word in IPA, and the word in normal spelling; *The Vowel Chart*; *The Facial Diagram* (showing location of sound in vocal organs). The tools are for English but the ideas apply to any language and help develop sounds that a teacher knows how to demonstrate.
22. Bruckner, Rose: "Vitalizing Classroom Activities in Spanish," H (Feb. '49), 44-47. Songs serve a variety of purposes. Perhaps the most important is the giving of pleasure to the singers, the making them feel that they are really accomplishing something worth while in the foreign tongue. Students whose pronunciation leaves much to be desired usually sing much better than they speak, and singing gives them more confidence in their ability to master the language. The songs, too, give a picture of customs, though here again discussion and interpretation are necessary.
23. Delattre, Pierre: "Le Jeu de l'e instable de monosyllabe initial en français," FR, XXII (May '49), 455-459; XXIII (Oct. '49), 43-47. The author gives careful and detailed rules concerning the pronunciation or omission of *e* in French monosyllables.
24. Eaton, Esther M.: "Conversation—How?" MLJ, XXXIII (Feb. '49), 138-145). Speaking a language has taken its rightful place among objectives of modern language teaching. The author describes several techniques and devices proven successful in her classes.
25. Hayes, Alfred S.: "Elementary German Instruction at Louisiana State University," MDU, XLI (Nov. '49), 378-387. Elementary German instruction is conducted here with courses using mechanical aids as a substitute for the informant, taught by teachers with conventional backgrounds. Pedagogic and administrative problems, including discussion of drills and mechanical equipment involved.
26. Lind, Melva: "Functional French and Mount Holyoke's Laboratory Theatre," FR, XXII (Mar. '49), 401-405. The Laboratory Theatre at Mount Holyoke has presented gala productions in the foreign languages on the campus. The author describes the benefits and pleasure derived from the performances by the participants and audience which include the community and students (even those in the first year of French).
27. Mallo, Jeronimo: "Puntos de Vista Acerca de la Enseñanza de la Pronunciación Es-

- pañola," H (Feb. '49), 40-43. Several reasons are advanced for a preference for teaching the Latin-American pronunciation instead of the Castilian.
28. Mayer, Elizabeth M.: "How to Supplement Required Reading of German by Oral Training," GQ, XXII (Mar. '49), 78-83. The teacher should give as much and as varied oral presentation of the oncoming material as possible, so that the development of oral patterns in the students' minds will grow simultaneously with that of visual patterns.
 29. Pike, Evelyn G.: "Controlled Infant Intonation," LL, II (Jan.-Mar. '49), 21-24. A mother experimented scientifically by giving modelled intonation to words heard by her baby, with the result that the correct intonation was uttered. The implication is that children early learn pitch of speech and that "baby talk" is unnecessary waste.
 30. Robinove, Muriel Netzorg. "Four Steps and a Level Road," MLJ, XXXIII (Jan. '49), 42-50. The author advocates French dictation as one of the finest exercises, surest tests, and most satisfying experiences a teacher can give. It can be integrated into daily lessons, or alone serve as a final examination. The four steps of the *diclée écrite* must never vary if pupils are to acquire correct language memory habits. These steps are: (1) teacher pronounces, (2) class listens, (3) class repeats, (4) class writes. Many helpful hints for the use of dictation are given, and several detailed examples of complete class procedure demonstrate how various levels may use this method.
 31. Schwartz, William L.: "Another Introduction to French Vowels, Avoiding Spellings," FR, XXII (Mar. '49), 406-407. The author describes his method used to teach French pronunciation without the textbook which was delayed. He began with the pronunciation of cardinal numerals plus the French names for the letters of the alphabet. He also inserted into his chart the needed IPA symbols, to help retention and to prepare the class to read the transcriptions in the text.
 32. Wallace, Betty J. "Pronunciation as a Two-fold Process," LL, II (Apr.-June '49), 44-46. Before a pupil can produce speech sounds he must be made to hear them. Some ingenuity in the choice and arrangement of examples will achieve this.

IV. BIBLIOGRAPHY, SURVEYS, STATISTICS, REPORTS (17). See also: 76

33. "Interest Increasing in Hebrew," HE, VI (No. 1) (Sept. 1, '49). Through a study conducted by New York University's School of Education it has been found that there is a marked increase in the number of institutions of higher learning which will accept credit in Hebrew in satisfaction of the entrance language requirement. It appears, however, that courses in Hebrew as a Biblical language still outnumber those in Hebrew as a living tongue.
34. "Unity Through Languages," TES (No. 1794) (Sept. 16, '49), 635. A report of the results of a recent meeting of the Slavonic Branch of the Modern Language Association. The report emphasized the need for a free and friendly interchange of linguists, *i.e.* between the Western and Eastern peoples. It was agreed that the linguistic and literary wealth of the Russian language gives it a cultural and educational value high enough to place it among the leading modern languages.
35. Amann, William F.: "Bibliographical Aid to the Teaching of the History of German Civilization," MLJ, XXXIII (Oct. '49), 435-444. Works used by the author in preparation and teaching of the history of German civilization are listed in the categories of Historical, Cultural-Historical, and Art, and are briefly evaluated. The bibliography is intended for the use of those called upon to teach such courses on short notice. Interest in foreign civilizations has risen greatly since the end of World War II.
36. Bovée, Arthur Gibbon: "The Present-Day Trend in Modern Language Teaching," MLJ, XXXIII (May '49), 384-391. The author undertook an investigation of present trends, using information supplied by the universities of Illinois, Ohio State, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Northwestern, Indiana, North Carolina, and Texas. Results are displayed in four tables with accompanying commentary.
37. Coleman, Algernon. *An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching*.* Vol. III: 1937-1942. New York: Kings Crown Press, 1949. xiii+549 pp. (Compiled by Clara Breslove King and Clare Balluff, edited by Robert Herndon Fife.) The third five-year volume of bibliography was about halfway along when Mr. Coleman, author of the first two volumes, died. His assistant, Mrs. King, turned over the materials processed to that point, and Mr. Fife and his assistant completed the work. The period covered by the volume ended during the war when paper was scarce and printing expensive. As publication was again and again postponed, printing costs rose but the printing budget did not. As a result, the 1,115 items abstracted for the period had to be cut to 853 to bring the book within the scope of funds available. The book is a product of the Committee on Modern Languages of the American Council on Education, and four other publications of the Committee are abstracted in it. Articles from fifty different periodicals are annotated, and many books are briefed. Although probably not complete, the collection of M.A. theses

- and Ph.D. dissertations on pedagogical aspects of modern languages represents one of the most valuable resources of the book for persons directing research or undertaking experimentation. In addition, chapters pertaining to foreign languages in books on education and psychology would most likely have been missed by many research workers but for being reported here.
38. Fries, Charles C.: "Review: The Chicago Investigation," *LL*, II (July-Sept. '49), 89-99. This review comments on three chapters of the 1948 *Investigation of Second Language Teaching*. It was read to a group of foreign language educators gathered at the University of Chicago on invitation of the investigators at the end of August 1948 to react to the two-volume report, later published by Ginn & Company. This is probably the only report published as written of those prepared by selected experts to be read at the conference. After some comments on the "intensive" approach which is the basis of the investigation, Fries discusses the chapters on teaching of English as a foreign language.
 39. Henderson, Richard L.: "Educational News and Editorial Comment—Which Language First?" *SR*, LVII (No. 8) (Oct. '49), 399-400. This article is based on a research study made by Gilbert C. Kettelkamp at the University of Illinois. He concludes that Latin is not superior to any other language as preparation for improved work in a second language. A greater gain is usually attained when a student goes from one modern language to another, or from a modern language to Latin.
 40. Hieble, Jacob: "German Instruction in Russian Schools," *GQ*, XXII (No. 3) (May '49), 130-133. Description of Soviet methods deduced from German grammar text used in Soviet secondary schools; propagandistic apotheosis techniques of Soviet communism.
 41. Kettelkamp, Gilbert C.: *Which Step First? The Relation of Sequence to Language Achievement*,* Urbana: University of Illinois Bulletin, XLVI, No. 58, April 1949. 40 pp. Author reviews attitude of investigators on claim that prior study of Latin is the best way to learn a modern language. In 1,059 cases in two high schools of pupils who studied two languages, the grade point average was 3.72 in the second language, a gain of .20 grade points over 3.52, the first language average. Departure from this variation was small, no matter what sequence of languages was followed. In one school priority of Latin before French was less valuable than French before Latin; French was better than Latin to precede German. Author concludes: "The claims that one language warrants being publicized and taught as a preparation for a second language cannot be supported on the basis of expected increase in the grade level of work in the second language."
 42. Koch, Ernest: "Language Requirements and Language Aims," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Oct. '49), 458-462. In determining defensible instructional aims "contact allowance" must be considered. This survey of existing language requirements of three hundred and thirty-five 1949-1950 college bulletins will aid such planning. Tables showing statistics in College, Public, and Private Universities permit the following conclusions: the most common language requirement for admission to college is two years of one language, with a definite trend away from rigid prescription; two-year continuation of the language offered for admission is the most popular of college degree requirements with rigidity again slackening.
 43. Nicolas, L. N., et al.: "Teaching Opportunities in 1948," *ERB*, XXVIII (Mar. '49), 64-73. Of the largest class in the history of Ohio State's College of Education, the 1948 class of 683 graduates, 185 were not available for teaching for a variety of reasons. Authors show number of calls for teachers, number and percentages placed, the most typical combinations, and other data. "The 90 calls for the teaching of languages shows a slight drop from the number of calls in 1947. Latin was asked for 56 times, an increase of 6 over last year; Spanish came next; then French. There was a decrease in the Spanish calls and an increase of French calls. German was still low."
 44. Penzl, Herbert: "Modern Language Instruction in Afghanistan," *SS*, LXIX (No. 1788) (Mar. '49), 224-225. In addition to the languages of Pashto and Persian, French, German, American English and British English are widely used as instruments of teaching in schools of Afghanistan. The study of foreign languages leads almost exclusively to a higher education on the university level.
 45. Phillips, Walter T.: "Latest Trends in Foreign-Language Enrollment at San Diego State College," *SS*, LXIX (No. 1796) (May 21, '49). This analysis of trends in enrollment in foreign language classes takes into account the various languages taught, the number and percentage of students enrolled in each language course for years 1946, 1947 and 1948, together with the number and percentage of students enrolled in first year, intermediate, and advanced courses. It serves to refute claims made by some administrators that increase in foreign language classes after the war was due to a desire to fulfill quickly the language requirement on the part of entering students.
 46. Powers, F. F.: "Selected References on Secondary School Instruction: Foreign Lan-

- guage," *SR*, LVII (Feb. '49), 120-121. Twenty-six annotated items selected from 1948 periodicals.
47. Robinson, Vern W.: "Foreign Languages in California Public High Schools and Junior Colleges," *MLF*, XXXIV (Nos. 1-2) (Mar.-June '49), 48-51. Statistical survey of distribution of foreign language offerings.
 48. Shekerjian, Hermine: "Achievement of Public Versus Private School Students in College French, Stanford University 1934-1946," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Jan. '49), 65-69. The results of the Stanford study confirm findings of related studies. Aptitude test scores do not correlate with achievement at the first year level, but do in second year. Young people enjoy the cultural aspect of language work more than grammar and composition.
 49. White, Margaret: "Experiment in Language Study," *JE*, CXXXII (No. 3) (Mar. '49), 78-80. A discussion of an experiment conducted in Washington D.C. public schools in which foreign languages are taught from a functional rather than a formal point of view. The results of the experiment seem to indicate that both the serious student of language and the one whose interest is in some other field are benefited more from this approach as opposed to a more formal and traditional one.

V. CORRELATION, INTEGRATION (4). See also: 39

50. Guinagh, Kevin: "From Latin to Spanish," *CO* (Dec. '49), 30-31. The author is trying to point out present, tangible values to justify the teaching of Latin. He says in effect that a student who knows Latin thoroughly enjoys a tremendous advantage when studying Spanish, especially in the building of vocabulary.
51. Montgomery, Evelyn: "Como Está Hecho," *SA* (Feb. '49), 187-188. The author advocates learning by doing rather than by laborious drill. First and second year language students engage in learning the culture and contributions of the country being studied on their level of comprehension.
52. Sittler, E. V.: "A German Masterpieces Course in English," *GQ*, XXII (Nov. '49), 233-240. Description of course at Northwestern, including representative final examination.
53. Withers, A. M.: "Latin the Common Denominator for our Modern Languages," *CO* (Feb. '49), 50-51. The writer of this article proposes to bar college students from modern foreign language classes or English literature courses until they can show some accomplishment in Latin.

VI. CURRICULUM PLANNING, ADMINISTRATION (16). See also: 25, 33, 39, 42, 44, 45, 108, 109, 111, 124, 134

54. "Institute of Slavic Studies at California," *HE*, VI (No. 1), (Sept. 1, '49), 8. Through a \$100,000 grant from the Rockefeller Foundation a new Institute of Slavic Studies has been announced at California for the academic year 1949-1950. The program offers 80 courses in Slavic languages, literature, geography, history, politics, and economics.
55. "Georgetown University Institute of Languages and Linguistics," *HE*, VI (No. 2), (Sept. 15, '49), 19. A discussion of the organization and curriculum of the Institute of Languages and Linguistics at the Georgetown University School of Foreign Service.
56. Alexander, Theodor W.: "A Scientist Views Scientific German," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Jan. '49), 60-62. The author stresses the need for men trained as scientific linguists as well as scientists. Few professional translators are trained in scientific fields. Much original research is based on obscure German works, and lately Germany has again become a prolific ground for publication of new scientific periodicals. How should courses to prepare linguistically-trained scientists be set up and taught?
57. Canfield, D. Lincoln: "Recognition of High-School Scholarship in Foreign Languages," *H* (Nov. '49), 475-477. High school is the place for the development of a sense of linguistic accomplishment, of a "feel" for the foreign language—the spoken language—and for the "rasgos característicos" of the culture pattern that it represents. College is the place for the courses on the finer points of grammar, composition, for surveys and analyses of literature, philosophy, and philology. We should recognize, then, the "oral approach" function of the high school in the language-training program of a student who may continue the language in college.
58. de Graaff, Frances: "The Teaching of Soviet Literature," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Mar. '49), 216-220. Most Russian literature courses do not cover the Soviet period. Contemporary Russian literature is difficult and controversial to teach, but necessary for those who want to know present-day Russia. The teacher must have an objective point-of-view and must know his subject and his background material.
59. Delano, Richard H.: "Teaching Russian in the Private Secondary School," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Feb. '49), 124-128. Few secondary schools offer Russian. Since there is no established pattern of instruction, the opportunity exists now for collaboration between

- college and secondary to develop a course of study to enable students successfully to enter advanced college courses from high school. The author describes his two year Russian course at Lake Forest Academy in detail.
60. Dembro, Rosa G.: "Russian is an Easy Language," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Oct. '49), 463-466. There is no uniformity in the present teaching of Russian in the U.S. There is no objective, nor is it known how much grammar or vocabulary should be taught in the first year. Good grammars and elementary readers exist, but the AATSEEL must find a true objective. The Russian teacher's task is to present the language in a comprehensible and simple manner, and explain to other language teachers that Russian is not difficult and the alphabet is quickly mastered.
 61. Duncan, Maude Helen: "Second Year French in High School," *FR*, XXII (May, '49) 452-454. The author gives an outline of the minimum requirements for a second-year course in French after having made a careful study of texts, courses of study, and suggestions from teachers of French in secondary schools. In conclusion she gives some suggestions for the inexperienced teacher in regard to method.
 62. Ginsburg, Ruth R.: "Implications of Elementary-School Spanish for the High-School Spanish Program," *H* (Nov. '49), 470-474. Much of what we used to consider as a "must" in our first two years of a high-school course of study, we shall have to relegate to the third and even fourth year of Spanish. The two-year program must be planned to take care of both the academic and the non-academic students. More emphasis will have to be placed on learning by repetition and by rote. The analytical grammar approach will have no place in this new two-year course. Grammatical concepts will be explained and studied only when functionally necessary. Many grammatical forms will be learned as vocabulary, through usage.
 63. Machan, Helen M. and Messimore, Hazel M.: "They Learn So Easily," *OS*, XXVII (No. 6), (Sept. '49), 269. This is a report of an experiment in teaching French and Spanish to fifth and sixth graders at the University School of Kent State University. The oral approach was used and the pupils showed a considerable amount of proficiency in these two languages.
 64. Miller, Cloyd J.: "Antagonisms Disappear Among Pupils after Spanish Teaching is Introduced into all Grades," *NS* (Feb. '49), 35. In order to solve an unpleasant social situation, Spanish was introduced at the fourth grade. Now, in addition to solving the original problem, by the time the students complete their third year of Spanish in high school they can converse freely in Spanish as well as in English.
 65. Pauck, Charles E.: "The Informal Session as an Aid to Beginning Courses in Modern Foreign Languages," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Jan. '49), 51-55. Berea College (Ohio) extended its beginning foreign language course from three to five hours per week, originally intending the extra time for oral lab work. However, this plan was impossible; no extra material could be assigned than that covered in three hours per week. Thus the Tuesday and Thursday sessions became informal sessions under the guidance of an advanced student.
 66. RES Report to State Education Journals. "Spanish Teaching From First Grade On," *ATP*, (Mar. '49), 12. This report discusses a practice in the schools of Carlsbad, New Mexico, where Spanish is taught from the first grade through high school. By this plan it is hoped that (1) a truly bi-lingual community will be developed and (2) the calibre of work done by high school students in Spanish will be improved i.e., they will be able to speak Spanish.
 67. Tolpin, J. G.: "The Present Status of Teaching Russian for Scientists," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Jan. '49), 27-30. The majority of students of Russian require it only as a tool for their academic work, especially science. Most universities recognize Russian on a par with German as a science language requirement. Scientists are deeply interested in complete coverage of Russian technical literature. The author suggests a course that within a year can cover essential vocabulary and syntax through graded reading, and provide practice in reading scientific literature of special interest.
 68. Wachner, Clarence: "A Follow-Up Course in Spanish," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Apr. '49), 312-314. Few Detroit high schools are able to offer more than a two-year language course. This is a disadvantage to college preparatory students, and to those who enjoyed using the foreign language and want to further this ability. The Spanish course, which was evolved to serve as a liaison between the regular course and college, was a 2½ hour course with no homework, so as to fit the crowded curriculum.
 69. Wilner, Orthia L.: "The Foreign Language Teacher and the Curriculum," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Nov. '49), 499-509. The problems of world confusion and educational confusion are ours. Foreign language enrollments are dropping, and we are struggling for recognition in the curriculum for mass education. We must make our former students and administrators support us by really teaching the values we have to offer. What are these values? Not merely language skill, for this is not really essential. Not just to know our own language,

because this makes the foreign language only a tool which requires too much time to develop. Our real value is the teaching of the foreign culture, and the breaking down in insularity. In the Fourfold Path sciences and mathematics, social sciences, useful skills and creative arts are taught. Our place in the curriculum falls in the creative arts.

VII. EUROPEAN RELATIONS, THE WAR, THE POSTWAR (1).

See also: 5, 7, 34, 40, 74

70. Spahn, Raymond J. and Poste, Leslie I.: "The Germans Hail America: Some Aspect of Communication Media in Occupied Germany," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Oct. '49), 417-426. For four years American thought has had a relentless impact on German culture through various media, with the U.S. using print, radio, film, the fine arts, and the information center to present information about itself. The authors took part in the information program and include many statistics from the U.S. Military Governor. With most German communication services closed, steps were taken by the U.S. to fill this vacuum. By 1945 the Military Government operated radio stations, some newspapers, movies, and the first U.S. information center in Frankfurt. Further rapid development of these centers is traced in detail by the authors.

VIII. FILMS, RECORDINGS, AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS (7). See also: 19, 70, 101

71. Boyer, Leonard: "Teaching Through Laughter—the Uses of a Tape Recorder," *HP* (Feb. '49), 72-74. The author points out various uses of the tape recorder in foreign language classes. Uses include drills on pronunciation and vocabularies as well as the recording of songs, poems, and plays.
72. Cowan, George M.: "An Experiment with a Wire Recorder in Teaching General Phonetics," *LL*, II (July-Sept. '49), 76-82. A recorder, adequate in fidelity to record and play back, is of great aid in teaching general phonetics for demonstrations, mimicry practice, and oral testing. Tests may be filed and checked for later progress.
73. Johnson, Laura B.: "Mechanical Aids for Learning Languages," *FR*, XXIII (Oct. '49), 37-39. The author describes the use of a film of scenes in Quebec shown after the class had completed a unit on French Canada at the end of the first semester. The steps taken each day are described and samples of the best compositions written on the subject are included.
74. Lemieux, Claude P.: "Audio-Visual Aids in the Teaching of Russian," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Dec. '49), 594-602. This report emphasizes the need for the use of realia to further the student's understanding of the foreign culture, language, and literature since Soviet isolationism makes first-hand contact unlikely. Sources and prices of maps, pictures, language records, and films are listed and briefly evaluated. The author warns the instructor to approach sensibly the propaganda of Russian-made films, and to make a realization of Russian social aims one of the goals of his course.
75. Meiden, Walter: "The Use of Recordings in the Radio Language Course," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Apr. '49), 315-318. The beginning French course on station WOSU of Ohio State University illustrates how recordings can enrich the radio language course. Recordings have the advantage of making available many voices (some native) and prevent repetition from becoming dull, without requiring much time from any individual.
76. Ornstein, Jacob and Johnston, Stanley: "The Use of Audio-Visual Material by Foreign Language Classes in Junior Colleges of the North Central States," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Jan. '49), 36-41. A questionnaire sent to about one hundred junior colleges in 1948 is reproduced, and teachers' reactions from twenty-eight institutions replying are tabulated. Questions deal with the use, type, value, methods, suggestions, and results of the use of records and films.
77. Rosselot, LaVelle: "Audio-Visual Techniques in Foreign Language Teaching," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Nov. '49), 544-550. For three years the French department of Otterbein College (Ohio) has experimented with mechanical learning aids, and achieved satisfactory success. The aim was to find techniques basic enough to be adapted to other languages, keep within the regular class schedule, and keep cost and staff at a minimum. Special training methods found necessary are described.

IX. GENERAL LANGUAGE, AUXILIARY LANGUAGE (0). See also: 147, 152

X. GRAMMAR, SYNTAX AND COMPOSITION (11). See also: 73

78. Bergholz, Harry: "Negation in German," *GQ*, XXII (No. 1), (Jan. '49), 17-20. Four simple rules for position of "nicht" and similar negatives established.
79. Boeninger, H. R.: "A New Approach to Advanced German Composition and Conversation," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Feb. '49), 100-105. The author experimented in his advanced German composition and conversation course with a direct, "directed" method. Assignments

- in re-writing literary selections into his own German developed the student's language facility and fluency. These composition exercises began with an analysis of style, grammar and vocabulary, then the creation of a simpler style in re-writing. Oral work sprang from conversation about the selections.
80. Correspondent: "Modern Language Teaching," TES (No. 1794), (Sept. 16, '49), 635. This article discusses free composition as one means of teaching a foreign language. The method has value in oral work, too. Pupils "learn that language learning is not merely a matter of acquiring individual words but of using sentences."
 81. Darbelnet, J.: "La Transposition," FR, XXIII (Dec. '49), 115-118. The article treats of the use of transposition as a valuable grammatical exercise. It is superior to translation because it gives practice in subordinating the manipulation of words to the comprehension of the ideas which they express. The author gives examples.
 82. LeFant, Joan: "The Use of the Diary in Functional Spanish Teaching," MLJ, XXXIII (Jan. '49), 56-59. The primary purpose of language is to communicate emotions or ideas. The keeping of a diary enables a student to express his own personal interests. The student must feel assured that his confidences will not be ridiculed when being corrected by the teacher, who must be interested in him as an individual.
 83. Hewitt, Theodore B.: "The Superior Logic of Prepositional Use in German," MDU, XLI (No. 8), (Dec. '49), 436-437. Various examples illustrating and expanding the title. Thus, the ambiguity in the sentence "He lives with his father in a hotel" would never occur in the German with the proper use of "bei" or "mit." Likewise, how strange a picture for a German when he encounters "He was beside himself with joy" is compared with "aussersich," or when he learns that "eine Medizin gegen Influenza" must be rendered into English as "a medicine for influenza."
 84. Radimersky, G. W.: "'Two Birds with One Stone' or Getting Them One by One?" GQ, XXII (No. 1), (Jan. '49), 29-33. Statement of author's method of teaching adjective endings and modified participial construction.
 85. Radimersky, G. W.: "Is One Year of Elementary Grammar Enough?" MLJ, XXXIII (Mar. '49), 211-215. In reply to Robert's study, "Language or Grammar?" (February 1948 *MLJ*) the author states, "a sound knowledge of fundamentals is an absolute necessity for the successful pursuit of studies in the various fields of knowledge." One year for the acquisition of grammatical background for advanced study is not enough. A basic program of two years in which grammar is undertaken more intensively is needed.
 86. Schmidt, Maz L.: "Visualization of the Verb in German Sentence Structure," GQ, XXII (No. 1), (Jan. '49), 34-36. The article discusses the employment of a letter symbol system to chart position of verb in various situations.
 87. Siler, Henry: "French Gender by Rule," FR, XXIII (Dec. '49), 119-123. The author has studied French gender systematically and gives some workable rules applying to it. The material, in outline form, is classified (1) according to meaning (axioms), and (2) according to the ending of words.
 88. Steinhauer, H.: "The Declension of Adjectives (News and Notes)," MDU, XLI (No. 8), (Dec. '49), 438. Subject reduced to two rules, with some exceptions.

XI. LATIN-AMERICAN RELATIONS (1)

89. Carter, Grace: "On Teaching Terms with Spanish," MLJ, XXXIII (Mar. '49), 200-210. A French teacher describes her conversion to Spanish with fascinating travelogues on the Latin American countries in which she studied—Mexico, Cuba, Colombia and Ecuador. Her notes, helpful to anyone planning a summer in these countries, give hints including passports, living quarters, schools, food, luggage, customs, transportation, clothing, climate, hotels, recreation, shipping centers, and sights to see.

XII. LESSON PLANNING (3)

90. Anthony, Edward: "The Pattern Practice of Meanings," LL, II (July-Sept. '49), 83-85. Of the three tasks of a teacher—to choose useful vocabulary items, to present them meaningfully, and to practice them to mastery—the third job is often neglected. A lesson plan to demonstrate the "pattern practice" technique may show teachers a long-sought device.
91. Michalski, Charles: "Systematizing the Teaching of English Vowel Phonemes," LL, II (Apr.-June '49), 56-65. This careful plan giving basic principles, steps of presentation, practice drills, and reference charts, grows out of experience of training teachers of English in Peru, Chile, Puerto Rico and Bolivia. It shows how teachers must be aware of prior phonetic habits of the learner.
92. Yao, Shen: "Initial *r* in American English and Mandarin Chinese and How to Teach It," LL, II (Apr.-June '49), 47-54. This detailed lesson plan showing steps of presentation and practice with carefully chosen materials may help teachers of other languages.

XIII. MISCELLANEOUS (NOT CLASSIFIED ELSEWHERE) (3)

93. Brady, Agnes Marie: "One Hundred Years," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Feb. '49), 115-121. "The Spanish Teacher and Colloquial Phrase-Book" was written by Francis Butler in 1849. The author briefly paints the scene of this time showing the interest in the acquisition of a speaking ability evidenced by many famous men—Longfellow, Irving, Prescott, Tucknor, Mann, Hawthorne, and Lowell among them. Butler's text claims an "easy and agreeable method of acquiring a speaking knowledge of the Spanish language." Is there anything new to say in 1949? The foreword of the work is reproduced. Butler advises students to: (1) make some little progress every day, (2) begin precisely as a child learns to speak, (3) practice speaking habitually, and (4) keep a journal in Spanish of daily transactions.
94. Huebener, Theodore: "How Goethe Learned Languages," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Apr. '49), 268-273. Goethe learned his foreign languages at an early age, from native tutors and in a favorable environment. He had daily exercises in writing and extensive reading of his choice. He acquired considerable fluency in Italian and French, with less in written English although he read it easily. He was impatient with grammar rules; but he had remarkable perception, memory and enthusiasm. The foreign culture he assimilated and wove into his own work. For him, learning a foreign language was steeping himself in the ideas and ideals of another people.
95. VanZandt, Howard F.: "Japanese Try to Make Their Language Understandable," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Nov. '49), 541-543. The author gives several interesting examples of daily confusions resulting from the difficulty of pronunciation of the Japanese language. Since the occupation, language reform has become a matter of serious study, and the Education Ministry is advocating adoption of 1,850 characters as a maximum for public use.

XIV. MOTIVATION AND STIMULATION (4) See also: 17, 26, 45, 105

96. Blume, Eli: "Creating the Creative Spirit," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Mar. '49), 221-227. A prime educational aim is reflective thinking. In a foreign language, after mastering mechanics, we should use this knowledge to create something original. Bronx High School of Science is composed of superior students, thus the foreign language teacher must be versatile in stimulating activity. Memory work is an integral required part of language study. The author used poetry study to develop creative activity.
 97. Moxley, William E., Jr.: "Is Competition an Acceptable Incentive?" *MLJ*, XXXIII (Mar. '49), 193-195. The educator is confronted with a dualism in American educational and economic philosophy. On one hand we emphasize the co-operative effort and education on a democratic basis; on the other, we are in an economic community with a philosophy of competition for existence. In a life-centered curriculum can we ignore the motivation factor of competition? Spanish classes at Klamath Falls Union High School experimented with using the competitive spirit for useful learning with the contextual frame.
 98. Myron, Herbert B., Jr.: "Activating the Passive in Language Teaching," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Dec. '49), 614-616. Mass teaching techniques must be avoided to prevent non-participating students from lapsing into inactivity. The passive undertaking must become an active enterprise. Several suggestions are listed to develop active participation from the entire class at once. As one student recites all others must be alerted to correct. Student and critic may be paired for competition. Activate dictation by a preview-review technique to stimulate thought. Aural comprehension requires communication as well as reception. Films may be enacted and analyzed before presentation, then imitated with non-acting students serving as critic-directors.
 99. Wright, Elizabeth: "Let's Hear the High School Teacher's Side," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Apr. '49), 309-311. A high school teacher observes that many students fired with enthusiasm for foreign languages in high school lose interest in college. The reasons for this lack of interest are: over-emphasis on one method to the exclusion of consideration of individual differences, or lack of any basic method; a disappointing curriculum, often emphasizing reading and minimizing oral practice; too many literature courses as compared to linguistics; choosing professors for scholarship or travel rather than teaching talent and understanding of youth. The author admits at least one-third of high school foreign language students are poorly prepared, but must be passed for effort. A college placement test could determine the work standards of incoming students. College graduates in languages whose training adequately prepares them for teaching should be sent into the field.
- XV. PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING, TECHNIQUES OF INSTRUCTION (5).
See also: 2, 20, 28, 29, 30, 32, 36, 39, 49, 51, 77, 80, 90, 91, 98, 115, 139, 140
100. Hewitt, Theodore B.: "The Advantage of Latin as a Basis for the Study of German," *GQ*, XXII, (No. 3), (May '49), 149-151. Latin is an effective aid, particularly gram-

- matically, for studying German. PhD candidates especially should have this fact called to their attention.
101. Myron, Herbert B., Jr.: "Translation Anew," *FR*, XXIII (Dec. '49), 124-128. Though translation is not the perfect way of teaching accurate comprehension, the author points out that it has certain advantages which justify its being used sometimes. He gives a sample of some of the mistakes that students make in translation together with corrections that students take down in their notes. The article concludes with certain important implications of translation for teachers.
 102. Rosenbaum, Eric: "The Application of Transfer between Foreign Languages," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Apr. '49), 287-294. A brief résumé of transfer theories in general is given. As for transfer from a foreign language to English, results of many studies show that studying a foreign language will help to improve English, particularly vocabulary, if the elements of the foreign language and English are identical. Transfer is increased as these elements are pointed out, and superior intelligence also enhances the transfer. Transfer between foreign languages does take place. The success of transfer is proportionate to the time spent on the first language, it being immaterial which language was studied first.
 103. Schmidt, Max L.: "Symbols as an Aid in Oral Analysis of German Sentences," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Mar. '49), 196-199. German teachers often wish to limit use of theoretical grammar, yet find students need thorough analysis for complex sentences. A detailed diagram is time-consuming and causes loss of rapport. The use of suggestive symbols enables the teacher to analyze a sentence before the student's eyes quickly and with minimum use of blackboard space. Repeated use of the shorthand illustration of a running oral explanation brings quick comprehension. The author suggests symbols which can be employed with any method, and illustrates their use with several German sentences.
 104. Sparkman, Colley F.: "A New Language Must Be Spliced Onto One's Native Language," *MLJ*, XXXIII (May '49), 355-362. That one learns a second language in the same manner as his native tongue is an unsubstantiated belief. Instead, we must use a rationalized technique of analysis first, then drill. Don't expect to begin anew; instead, utilize existing concepts and relabel them. Do not ignore the native word or speech pattern, but show what is being substituted for it. The initial approach should not be oral as in a child. Use the existing reading ability in a more definite and lasting visual approach. Teach first what is easiest and most necessary. In teaching pronunciation explain position of speech organs and use similar native sounds as a springboard. Don't expect oral facility in the new language until new syntax is clearly understood as compared with English usage. Then provide aural drill to drive the matter home.

XVI. READING, METHODS, MATERIALS, VALUES (19). See also:
3, 11, 12, 20, 24, 49, 58, 61, 66, 69, 79, 96, 147, 152

105. Bolin, Elsie V.: "Teaching Hints for the French Classroom," *SE*, XVI (No. 4) (Apr. '49), 11-12. The writer, who is a high-school teacher of French and Latin, gives some very timely and valuable suggestions for helping to make French more meaningful to beginning students. Some of the activities mentioned include singing, assuming French names, spelling bees, dictation, reading of foreign newspapers, corresponding with French students and listening to recordings.
106. Cioffari, Vincenzo: "The Relation between the Publishing House and the Classroom," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Oct. '49), 427-434. The Modern Language Editor of the D. C. Heath and Company discusses the need for more coordination between the teaching profession and the textbook publisher. It is good business for a reputable publisher to keep abreast of new trends and techniques, to employ constant experimentation, observation and analysis, to provide an organic teaching method that will contribute to foreign language education and will be universally attractive and usable. An interesting summary of the relative numerical importance of each language taught on a national scale includes regional variations and a discussion of recent historical causes in enrollment fluctuations.
107. Clark, W. P.: "The Learning and the Teaching of Foreign Languages," *ME*, XXV (No. 7), (Mar. '49), 30-31. A discussion of the Michael West experiment of teaching Bengali students English through silent reading; the University of Missouri High School comparative experiment of teaching German through the reading approach as against the grammar approach. Mention is also made of the Heath-Chicago Modern Language Series of graded reading materials.
108. Clement, Besse A.: "The Role of the Contemporary French Fiction Course," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Nov. '49), 537-540. A contemporary fiction course in any modern foreign language may awaken greater interest and achieve worthy results, direct and indirect. An important indirect result is the aid to oral mastery of the language given by extensive

reading, communication and travel. Author cites several examples of previous contact students have had with contemporary French writers and trends through translated books, films, plays, and periodicals. These present interests stimulate a desire for a more extensive acquaintance, and a re-reading in the original language for comparison. Interest spreads as the student desires a knowledge of past literature for understanding of movements.

109. Evans, M. Blakemore: "The 'New Look' in Methods," MDU, XLI (No. 6), (Oct. '49), 303-309. The "new look" with its emphasis on an intensive oral approach achieved splendid results with the ASTP, but it was hardly new. Around the turn of the century it was called the "direct method." The spoken language should be blended with the written in order to afford our students the essential training which they need, and the "idealistic" should not be subjugated to the "materialistic." We also need a six-year college preparatory course in language beginning with two years in the junior high school (direct method) followed by four years in the senior high. Those students planning to pursue the humanities in college should also have a four-year course in Latin.
110. Holzmann, Albert W.: "An Experiment in Methodology," MLJ, XXXIII (Jan. '49), 63-64. The author in his intermediate German class used the periodical, *Jugendpost*, every other month translating the main articles and on alternate months answering questions in German on the context.
111. Kaulfers, Walter V.: "Targets for Our Aims," MLJ, XXXIII (Mar. '49), 171-178. It is time to start acting in terms of *world* languages, literatures and cultures. To teach people other than in a world context is to isolate and surrender them to the self-interested minority. The schools must help meet the demands of the future, by encouraging offerings in world languages, literatures and cultures at all levels. Contributions that such courses make to the unifying purposes of American postwar education are discussed and evaluated.
112. Leyburn, James J.: "The Educational Value of Modern Languages," FR, XXII (Jan. '49), 256-260. Dean Leyburn points out that the chief value of the study of a foreign language is that it can, if rightly taught, help make students intelligently aware "not merely of their heritage, but of their *participation* in all this." The study of modern languages can help train men to be intellectually curious.
113. MacKeigan, Neil S.: "Three Decades of Service and Progress," OS, XXVII (Jan. '49), 16-17. The author of this article pays tribute to Dr. Emile B. deSautz as teacher and director of the Demonstration School at Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio. We have a fairly detailed explanation of the "Cleveland Plan" for teaching foreign languages.
114. Myron, Herbert B., Jr.: "Reading Anew," FR, XXIII (Oct. '49), 40-42. The goal in this small world is to instill cultural values. "Reading is an objective of paramount importance" for a number of reasons. The printed word is a powerful instrument for cultural exchange and results of the reading skill can be properly tested on a large scale. By reading is meant the comprehension of the essential ideas and the spirit of an author.
115. Nabholz, Johannes: "The Teaching of Scientific German," GQ XXII (No. 3), (May '49), 145-148. Topics of grammar to be emphasized, as well as several general, practical suggestions.
116. Nida, Eugene A.: "Approaching Reading through the Native Language, LL, II (Jan.-Mar. '49), 16-20. Experiments in Mexico, in Russia and among American Indians have shown value of diglot primers to introduce the native language first and then the desired national language which is foreign to the learners.
117. Ornstein, Jacob: "A Romance Language Instructor Looks at the Slavic Languages," MLJ, XXXIII (Mar. '49), 185-192. This Romance Language instructor has a Slavonic background of ancestry, study, war use in the OSS and a brief Russian teaching experience. He recommends that Slavic languages follow the established Romance languages in developing realia sources, suitable texts, and more informal presentation of grammar.
118. Pulber, Jean: "Teaching Languages at the Navy Intelligence School," FR, XXIII (Oct. '49), 317-319. The naval officer who studies a foreign language does it for a practical purpose. The author describes the method used to reach the required aim in a short period of time.
119. Radimersky, G. W.: "Minimum Essentials for the Reading of Scientific German," MLJ, XXXIII (Feb. '49), 106-114. This article is intended to help the candidate for an advanced degree to prepare for his graduate reading examination in scientific German.
120. Schulz-Behrend, George: "Forever Immensee," GQ, XXII (No. 3), (May '49), 159-163. Pros and cons of "Immensee" as an American school text. Author favors its discontinuance.
121. Sundermeyer, William K.: "Language, Literature, and 'General Education'," MDU, XLI (No. 5), (May '49), 248-254. Foreign language teachers are apparently oblivious of

the trend toward general education. We are still aiming at a skill; our aims have become almost vocational, when we should be emphasizing literature. The language of German poetry and prose should be taught in form and sound to offer fuller understanding of art, of literary art, toward the liberal, the human. The function of sound, grammar, and syntax should be made an experience through speaking, listening, reading, and analysis. Good literature created, and is still creating, this esthetic and psychologic basis for the everlasting change of the "elements" of the language. True grammar is written by the poet. With re-orientation connected with general courses, German literature should contribute its important share in shaping the structure of ideas which students are now studying. Our literary texts therefore need not and must not be arranged, doctored, or sugar-coated.

122. Raymond, Joseph: "Using Proverbs in the Spanish Class," H, (May '49), 215-222. A somewhat neglected device which can be used with profit in teaching Spanish is the proverb or *refrán*. The value of proverbs is two-fold: they assist the student to gain increased language fluency and they give him a fuller understanding and appreciation of the Hispanic point of view.
123. Zimmerman, Irene: "Foreign Languages—a Vocational Asset," O, XXVII (No. 5), (Feb. '49), 333-337. In response to queries from students and vocational counselors as to the actual vocational value of knowing a foreign language, the author has prepared this article. It discusses vocations in which a knowledge of one or more foreign languages is desirable. The article also contains a selected bibliography for those who seek vocational opportunities which stress a need for proficiency in a foreign language.

XVII. REALIA, CIVILIZATION, CULTURES, CLUBS, SOCIALIZATION, ACTIVITIES (5). See also: 35, 71, 114

124. Cheney, Genevieve: "A Successful Experiment," FR, XXII (Jan. '49), 261-263. The author describes an interesting supplementary French course (for credit) designed for those who desire to know more about France and its culture. Time is devoted to French lectures by the teacher, reading from books, magazines, and newspapers, and projects. One French book, carefully selected, is read outside and reported on. Sometimes skits are performed.
125. Demorest, Don L.: "Letting French Fiction Teach French Civilization," FR, XXII (Mar. '49), 387-393. In every course in French we should be dealing directly or indirectly with French civilization. Therefore with proper choice of materials, teachers can and should be authoritative interpreters of French civilization and culture, as well as excellent teachers of French.
126. Scherer, George A. C.: "A Multi-Lingual House," MDU, XLI (No. 6), (Oct. '49), 310-312. The University of Colorado successfully and inexpensively combined French-German-Spanish language "house" (actually a unit of the women's dormitories). Discussion of practical problems involved.
127. West, Carolyn: "How Do We Do It?" SA, XXI (No. 1), (Sept. '49), 33. A discussion of Spanish Club activities at McKinley High School in Washington, D.C.
128. Vakar, Nicholas: "Teaching Russian Civilization," BAAUP, XXXV (Winter '49) 651-660. Teaching of Russian grew from three American colleges before 1914 to over 200 by 1948. Materials have been scant and none too satisfactory. Wheaton College (Massachusetts) started a course in Russian civilization in 1945-1946; by 1948 some 25 colleges had similar courses.

XVIII. TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS, TEACHER TRAINING (9). See also: 7, 65, 77, 91, 99, 140, 141

129. Bowers, Harold J.: "Teacher Shortages in Ohio," ERB, XXVIII (Jan. '49), 1-6. Ohio ranks sixth in number of teachers employed and 28th in percentage of teachers on temporary certificates. Ohio employs 5% of U.S. teachers and trains 8% of them. Ohio loses annually some 10% of its teachers. There is a surplus in some secondary subjects but a big deficit in elementary subjects. Author offers suggestions for recruitment, training, and improvement of teachers. The Ohio State program of dual certification is one answer: secondary teachers will also be certified to teach upper elementary grades.
130. Freeman, Stephen A.: "What About the Teacher?" MLJ, XXXIII (Apr. '49), 255-267. We are neglecting the fundamental factor in the situation, the teacher. The teacher is more important than the text, method, equipment or time. A poor teacher may retard normal development, while a superior teacher will transcend all difficulties and inspire interest and achievement. We have neglected our duty to maintain the standards of our profession on three counts, the recruiting, training, and placement of good teachers. The

- gradual decline in language enrollments is due in part to poor teaching. Quality of instruction and personal magnetism are deciding factors in our classes.
131. Furness, Edna Lue: "Does Your Methods Course Function?" *MLJ*, XXXIII (May '49), 349-354. This analysis of the potentialities of the methods of teaching modern languages considers what specific information the prospective teacher should have. The basic information the methodologist should give includes: analysis and consideration of past approaches; modern methods, language study as a means to understanding of foreign culture; modern language journals; source of audio-visual aids; better-known college programs; standard tests; curriculum trends; experimental work needed; professional organizations and opportunities for professional growth. The methodologist teaching this course should have knowledge of subject matter, wide cultural background, knowledge of techniques of appraisal and research, the ability to develop these same talents in others, a knowledge of social institutions impinging on learners, and a broad and successful teaching experience at secondary and collegiate levels. Further suggestions are made concerning college training of the methodologist.
 132. Hewitt, Theodore B.: "The Content and Administration of the Methods Course for Teacher Training," *MDU*, XLI (No. 1), (Jan. '49), 30-32. The methods course should stress practical topics necessary and useful to the incipient teacher, particularly such matters which are often glossed over in standard school grammars as the proper use of "lassen" and of the prefix and suffix. This course should emphasize selection and utilization of realia, as well as treat topics as the sound shifts, "Wortwandel," historical gender, development of causative verbs, and acquisition of reading vocabulary.
 133. Michel, Eleanor: "First Violins and Second Fiddles," *FR*, XXII (Feb. '49), 312-316. Membership in the teaching profession can be compared to a great symphony orchestra. The term "first violins" may be used to apply to college teachers and "second fiddles" to high school teachers. The author makes suggestions as to how both the first violins and the second fiddles can contribute to the harmony among themselves and with each other.
 134. Peacock, Vera L.: "An Expanded Foreign Language Program in Teacher Training Institutions," *MLJ*, XXXIII (Jan. '49), 31-35. The gradual loss of foreign language requirements in teacher training and the small number of majors prepared by them has a definite impact on the public schools. Public schools which cannot find foreign language teachers are forced to drop their courses or use poorly trained substitutes. The answer is to encourage college freshmen to try languages, arrange their whole program to make a major easier, indoctrinate their advisors to the need, and have a well-planned publicity program resulting from school policy and the convictions of the administration.
 135. Purin, C. M.: "Language is Ordinance," *MLJ*, XXXIII (May '49), 335-338. Two world wars have made the public realize victories are dependent on the nation's schools, and that foreign languages are not "useless" subjects. The ability to speak a foreign tongue has become a prime objective and significant weapon both in war and peace. With the spoken word as an important objective, there arises a need for reorientation in our foreign language curricula, and the raising of standards of certification in Teacher Training. Appraisal of progress in modern language teaching is planned by the Committee on the Recruitment, Training and Placement of Modern Language Teachers, with the writer as chairman. Whole-hearted co-operation is asked in determining appropriate minimum requirements for language teachers to be presented to state legislatures.
 136. Stanley, Joseph: "Who Should Study Spanish?" *H* (Nov. '49), 467-469. The answer lies with the Spanish teachers themselves. They hold the key to their own salvation. If they increase language-instruction efficiency, if they apply recent psychological discoveries concerning the laws of learning, if they create a "Spanish" of intrinsic worth, the number of students who could, and should, profitably avail themselves of such instruction would increase immeasurably.
 137. Wright, Leavitt O.: "The Self-Critical Teacher of Spanish," *H* (Feb. '49), 14-19. Teachers should aim at perfection in pronunciation and be keenly self-critical. The principles of open and closed vowels should be learned and taught. Hours of practice with a recorder will pay off.
- XIX. TESTING, APPRAISALS, EVALUATION (6). See also: 25, 49, 52, 72
138. Condon, John J.: "Pupil Ability Standards in French," *FR*, XXII (Feb. '49), 320-322. The author points out how many of the standard tests may be used to establish Ability Standards for a pupil, or for a class. He indicates that he will be glad to assist any teachers of French who may be interested in his methods of testing.
 139. Dyer, Henry S.: "The Effect of Recency of Training on the College Board French Scores," *SS*, LXX (No. 1808), (Aug. 13, '49), 105-106. From a study made at Harvard on the CEEB French Test, the writer concludes that as training becomes less recent, the

French score a student is likely to make becomes lower, and further that the amount of loss may be substantial. Several statistical tables are included as supporting evidence of the writer's claims.

140. French, Virginia: "Do I Do That?" LL, II (Jan.-Mar. '49), 12-15. A suggested check list for teachers of English as a second language that can be used by any modern language teacher for self-evaluation. Nine classroom procedures are listed as faults and suggestions made to overcome them.
141. Moore-Rinvulcri, Mina: "The Oral Examination in Modern Languages," JEL, LXXXI (No. 959), (June '49), 330-332. The oral examination at School Certificate stage is mainly used in England for the testing of modern languages. The writer discusses the role of the three human factors in this type of exam: the candidate, the examiner, and the teacher. She concludes that "there can be no hard and fast distinction between written and oral work in a language; both are so closely interwoven that to neglect the one is to impoverish the other."
142. Pauck, Charles E.: "Should the Standardized Final Examination Determine the Entire Grade in the Course?" GQ, XXII (Jan. '49), 21-28. Discussion of advantages and disadvantages, with question answered in affirmative, stressing use of standardized, objective tests.
143. Smith, Madorah E.: "Measurement of Vocabularies of Young Bilingual Children in Both of the Languages Used," PS, LXXIV, 305-310. This study attempts to measure the vocabularies in both languages used by a group of 30 bilingual children who knew both Chinese and English words. The results indicate that (1) in either language the group was found to have below average-sized vocabularies for children of their age and (2) when the vocabularies of the two languages were added together 2/5 of the children exceeded norms for monolingual children; but when words of duplicate meaning were subtracted only 1/6 of them did.

XX. VOCABULARY, LANGUAGE, ORTHOGRAPHY (12). See also: 90, 143

144. Albrecht, Erich A.: "New German Words in Popular English Dictionaries," GQ, XXII (Jan. '49), 10-16. New or newly-added words of German origin as noted in recent editions of two standard dictionaries of English.
145. Bolinger, Dwight L.: "The *What* and the *Way*," LL, II (July-Sept. '49), 86-88. Conflicts between spoken and written language often confuse between *what* is said and the *way* it is said. Misunderstandings may be due more to misquoted ways than to misquoted words.
146. Bull, William E.: "Natural Frequency and Word Counts," CJ (May '49), The author feels that it cannot be assumed that there is a correlation between frequency of words and utility. He admits, reluctantly, that word counts cannot be considered a valid representation of a people's cultural and linguistic activities and therefore they are of dubious value from a pedagogical point of view.
147. Hall, Robert A., Jr.: *Leave Your Language Alone!* Ithaca, N.Y.: Linguistica, 1949. 265 pp., \$3.00. In four parts (fourteen chapters) the author analyzes the difficulties which beset us with regard to language and our use of it, sets forth the essentials of modern linguistics, and shows how we can apply its results to the solution of our problems. Of "Things We Worry About"; "How Language Is Built"; "Language in the World Around Us"; and "What We Can Do about Language." Part IV treats "Learning Your Own Language." Possibilities of a One-World language are studied. The last chapter "There's Nothing Wrong with Your Language" is the reassuring conclusion which warrants the author in using the imperative as his title.
148. Iacobelli, Michael: "The Semantic Discipline," MLJ, XXXIII (Jan. '49), 16-22. Semantics is defined as the "study which attempts to develop and increase the power of interpretation." The aim of this work is to make evident the cause of misunderstanding of words. The two major problems of language are the identification of words with things ("the importance of context"), and the misuse of abstract words ("the practice of multiple definition"). The latter is constantly affecting society. Semantics is a practical study in that it aids one to understand better what he reads or hears, to talk and write more effectively and logically, and to think more accurately.
149. Lissance, Arnold: "A Twentieth Century German-English Dictionary," GQ, XXII (May '49), 134-144. Outline of project, including need, method of presentation, and survey of contents.
150. Mallo, Jerónimo: "El Anglicismo en los Libros de Texto para La Enseñanza de la Lengua Española." MLJ, XXXIII (Apr. '49), 295-301. Many examples are given of the effect of the proximity of English-speaking peoples on the vocabulary of Spanish-speaking natives, and the subsequent infiltration of these Anglicisms into textbooks designed for teaching Spanish. The author expresses doubt as to the advisability of using a vocabulary of this sort for advanced Spanish students.

151. Nosofsky, William: "Our Babel of Language Myths," Soc.E, XIII (May '49), 227-230. A most informative, interesting, and timely article in which such myths as those of "superior languages," association of language with nationality, and the assumption that people with the same culture must speak the same language, are dispelled. The author cites numerous examples in support of his point of view.
152. Pei, Mario: *The Story of Language*.* Phila.: Lippincott, 1949. 493 pp., \$5.00. The book is written for popular consumption, but it contains the results of scholarly investigations. Six parts in forty-nine chapters treat: The History of Language; The Social Function of Language; The Constituent Elements of Language: The Modern Spoken Tongues; Problems of Language Learning; An International Language. Part V is of greatest help in a technical way to teachers, but the whole book is a *must* to all teachers as well as to the general reader.
153. Twaddel, W. F.: "Meanings, Habits and Rules," LL, II (Jan.-Mar. '49), 4-11. There is choice but also compulsion in language usage. The teacher's problem is to establish habitual practices that do not seem forced by rule. "Meaning is our destination; the way to it, through rules, is a journey with its own rewards."
154. Woolsey, A. W.: "Language in the Lab." TQ (Apr. '49), 27. Author feels that some effort should be made to show the student that foreign languages are a medium of expression and communication between human beings.
55. Wuest, Anne: "French Vocabulary Aids," MLJ, XXXIII (Feb. '49) 122-123. New words and expressions developing in contemporary life are often not found in dictionaries. Notes and translations are given to aid teachers who want to use such expressions. Subjects included are autos, planes, office, clothing, cosmetics and medicines, as well as tools and furnishings.

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Notes and News

The Source of Manuel Gálvez's "Los Ciudadanos de Poyastá"

Los ciudadanos de Poyastá, a short story included in Manuel Gálvez's *Luna de miel*,¹ is based on an incident which took place in Buenos Aires in 1916.²

The citizens of Poyastá, a peaceful provincial town, were unduly disturbed one summer morning in 1880. A revolution in the provincial capital had caused a change in their government and they were already circulating hearsay rumors about the new *jefe político* and *comisarios* who would soon arrive to assume the reins of government. In fact, Juan García, a townsman of Poyastá, vociferously accused them of being "asesinos y ladrones"³ when they threatened to shoot two of his fellow citizens who had drunkenly shouted *vivas* in favor of the fallen government. Naturally he was immediately incarcerated.

Consequently the intellectuals of Poyastá agreed to meet at the home of Dr. Zapata, the town physician, to draft a note of protest in favor of Juan García and to send it to the capital. On that occasion Zapata, who himself had at first suggested an uprising of citizens in García's defense, refused to sign the communication, expressing himself in favor of a verbal protest. The town priest too, who owed his appointment to García, agreed that to sign was to ally himself with the enemies of capital punishment. Other friends of García likewise refused to sign, remembering that they were the sole means of support of their families. The editor of *La Justicia*, the town newspaper, felt that the publication of the note would be detrimental. Finally Dr. Zapata advised them all to wait, declaring that he would be the first to write an article of protest if Juan García remained in jail or if he were sentenced to death. The only true partisan of the poor victim was the Poyastá schoolmaster,⁴ who accused his colleagues of cowardice.

The next night Juan García was shot. Nobody protested. The incident was not even mentioned in *La Justicia*. Instead, the editor published an elegy to patriotic souls. The other citizens performed their customary tasks except Priola, who remained at home because of a sudden illness, and Dr. Zapata, who began to write an article on *Los epifenómenos entre los seres poliplasidarios*.

The Juan García in real life was Folco Testena, an Italian journalist living in Buenos Aires, who published an article in the *Giornale d'Italia* in July, 1916, protesting against the fact that Carlos Saavedra Lamas, Minister of Justice, had signed the death sentences of Juan Bautista Mauro and Francisco Salvato, Italian criminals who were living in Argentina at the time. Testena was incarcerated for this act and the government was planning to deport him.

Manuel Gálvez, who was in Córdoba at the time, sent a letter to Alfredo Bianchi, one of the editors of *Nosotros*, requesting him to read it at the next monthly dinner of the contributors to that review. It contained a request for Testena's release. Bianchi read the note and signed it. The others agreed to do likewise. Testena himself, having been released on bond, was

¹ Manuel Gálvez, *Luna de miel* (Buenos Aires: Editorial Patria, 1920).

² Manuel Gálvez, *Amigos y maestros de mi juventud* (Buenos Aires: Editorial Kraft, 1944), pp. 161-162: "Años después escribí un cuento, inspirado por la actitud de Ingenieros, que es una síntesis de la cobardía humana ante el poder. El cuento se titula *Los ciudadanos de Poyastá* y ha sido traducido al francés, italiano, alemán, inglés, dinamarqués, yiddisch y griego."

³ *Luna de miel*, *op. cit.*, p. 205.

⁴ This was probably Gálvez himself, who was at that time Inspector of Secondary Education.

present and tearfully thanked them. At first Dr. José Ingenieros, an Argentine psychiatrist, the Dr. Zapata of the story, refused to sign it on the grounds that such an act might ruin him professionally. Like Dr. Zapata, he favored a verbal protest except in the case of actual deportation. His decision influenced the others, who raised objections so rapidly that finally no one wished to defend Testena for fear of losing his position. Consequently Gálvez wrote a letter on his behalf to Saavedra Lamas at the risk of losing his position as Inspector of Secondary Education. He sent it to both *La Nación* and *La Prensa*, leading Buenos Aires newspapers. When the editor of the former refused to publish it, José Cortejarena, editor of *La Razón*, did so.⁵

The defense,⁶ which was written in the elevated style of a Cicero pleading for the citizenship of an Archias, took cognizance of Testena's love for Argentina. He had translated Argentine poetry and a book of Arturo Capdevila's to Italian.⁷ He had given lectures on Argentine poetry in the normal schools of Buenos Aires, in the provinces, and in the University of La Plata. Furthermore, he had faithfully reviewed "con inteligencia, simpatía y acierto"⁸ every important book as it had appeared. The literary élite had attended a banquet for him. He had been generous to the poor. After all, argued Gálvez, Testena was not attacking Argentine society in particular, but society in general. His only blame was that he hated capital punishment. Don Manuel's final plea to his colleagues is an exhortation to rise to Testena's defense:

Y ahora pregunto: ¿dejaremos condenar por la justicia, dejaremos expulsar del país a este hombre que ha consagrado tantas horas de su vida a difundir la literatura argentina, a este hombre de corazón que ama a nuestro país, no con retóricas vanas ni discursos de confraternidades ilusorias, sino traduciendo sus libros, comentando la belleza creada por sus poetas? Fuera un monstruoso desagradecimiento, fuera una iniquidad sin nombre. Los que lo conocemos, hablemos en su favor para evitarlo.

Antes de terminar, quiero expresar mi esperanza de que todos nuestros hombres de letras se levantarán francamente, generosamente, en favor de Testena, que tan generoso ha sido para con nosotros y para con nuestra patria; que ha sido tan generoso, con las mejores de las generosidades: la del espíritu y la del trabajo.

Invito a mis colegas a hablar por Falco Testena.⁹

As a result of Gálvez's defense, Testena remained in Argentina, but, according to various issues of *Nosotros*, he made frequent trips to Italy and to Brazil.*

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On Objectives in Foreign-Language Teaching

Given a solid basis in student-material, that is, students who know something about English, objectives and approaches in the teaching of the modern foreign languages will take care of themselves. Thirty years ago, when the word "objective" was never used, as far as I can recall, the rewards of foreign-language study seemed to me, and I think to most of us now over fifty, perfectly clear.

What has happened to make students of the present day such different animals from the

⁵ *Amigos y maestros de mi juventud*, op. cit., pp. 160-162.

⁶ Manuel Gálvez, *En defensa de Falco Testena*, published in *La vida múltiple* (Buenos Aires: Sociedad Cooperativa Nosotros, 1916), pp. 177-180.

⁷ Falco Testena, *Antología della poesia argentina moderna*. Versiones italianas. Milasso, Alpes, Casa editora, 1927; and *Melôpeme y Ninfea* [by Arturo Capdevila], cited in *Nosotros* (Buenos Aires, XXI), pp. 401-406.

⁸ *La vida múltiple*, op. cit., p. 179.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 180.

* EDITOR'S NOTE: This is a very interesting note revealing the origin of one of Gálvez's stories. It does not convince us as to any alleged resemblance between Ingenieros and Dr. Zapata. The general opinion of Dr. Ingenieros has been all along that he was a man of great moral courage. He very likely did not always hold the same political opinions as Gálvez and Falco Testena. We wish we could present the views of Dr. Ingeniero on this matter.

former kind? My answer would be, assuming that the moderns admitted to classes are equipped in English, to deny the reality of such difference.

Our elaborate "cultural" approaches, adjusted painfully to beginners, would have been in those earlier years, as they are in my opinion now, quite boresome. Why talk so long about the Tower of Pisa and the Louvre as if college years and college foreign-language classes represented the only times and places for learning about these things? Why go "Sailing the Spanish Main" or taking a trip "Rumbo a México" in a vain effort to feel lively joy in somebody else's sightseeing tour?

And what about illustrations in such textbooks as they are supposed to fit into the "cultural objective" frame? Very few high-school and college students (even granting them knowledge of English) are ready to apprehend the qualities of peoples through the pictures that predominate in so many of these texts. They are without the artistic sentiment which is usually the product of much living and experience, or of special training and environment. The many among our young people turn up their noses at aspects of quaintness and mechanical primitiveness. Foreigners seem to them under this picture-treatment merely "funny" people, and their language therefore probably not worth working on very hard. Fine buildings and city panoramas perhaps represent better pedagogical tactics, for in these our students see the element of wealth and the "bath-tub" refinement they know and celebrate. And much better, ideally, are the Rosetta Stone, the Aztec Calendar, the Mayan structures, or Roman busts, or old coins, or statuary, or pyramids, or apposite paintings from the art galleries. Our older texts, if they had illustrations at all, confined themselves mainly to objects like these, and to this extent at least were better adapted to educational realities than many of our 1950 productions. It is rather manifest that grammars do not need pictures at all, though maps are always in order (what a grammar was the old Fraser and Squair for American students of French!), and harried publishers should be assured that, exactly now as in the past, leaving them out from such texts does not imply corruption of language aims and practices.

After all the published and spoken straining after a hundred objectives culled from the bibliographies by armchair strategists, with bobbed vocabularies to suit the tastes of the unconditioned and the indolent, have been weighed in the balance, we shall all one day be trooping back to *Germelshausen*, *José*, *L'Abbé Constantin*, and other masterpieces that lead on to other reading when the instructor lets go the student's hand—which suggests what should be the acid test in choosing early reading materials for the most important of all possible objectives.

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Translation—A Practical Skill

There is much discussion nowadays about the value of foreign language study, particularly as included in the high-school curriculum. People are beginning to ask: "Of what *practical* value is the knowledge of a foreign language?" Commissions are being set up to consider this very question. Turning book knowledge into money is a problem which most of our students will, unfortunately, sooner or later have to meet.

Along with this increasing desire that foreign languages should be useful, there is a new trend in language instruction. The "oral method," introduced by the Army, has extended its influence to colleges and high schools.

This "Army method," an intensive course with emphasis on speaking the language, was the best method for soldiers. An American who would suddenly be transplanted from his native environment to Germany, Italy, France, or Japan would need to know enough of the local language to ask his way to the railroad-station, or perhaps to order a meal in a restaurant. This was all that these courses pretended to do—to enable the soldier to "get along" in the language so that he wouldn't get too badly lost in a foreign country. Naturally, the Army had

its language experts too—but I doubt very seriously whether these experts were chosen from students with six or eight weeks of foreign-language training.

The oral-approach method is attractive. Instead of the bitter medicine of grammar and vocabulary learning, the students start right off with cake and candy—speaking little sentences to each other in a foreign language. But my question is, where else, outside the classroom, will these students speak a foreign language? We hope they will not all be soldiers. What practical use is mere speech to our students?

Let us pause for a moment to think of what we as teachers are trying to do. We are trying to transform our students into educated people. Did you ever meet an educated person who could not read? To be educated in a foreign language means to be able to read the language. A child six years of age, who has never attended school, but who has spent his life in France, playing with other children and prattling to his parents, speaks better French than most of our students ever will. Is it our aim to try to bring out teen-age students merely to this level of achievement?

Parents are sometimes intrigued if a child is able to speak a few foreign phrases, but they are also apt to be disappointed if they discover that this same child cannot read. We can understand this when we consider that if this phenomenon were to occur in English, the offices of child psychiatrists would be mobbed! Without reading ability in English, the child will never have a normal life! Without reading ability in a foreign language, the child is at a preschool level in the language. Of what practical use is speech without reading?

Now we can consider the reverse side of the question. Of what practical use is reading without speech? In my opinion, reading is the practical skill, speech the luxury item. You can read when you have no one with whom to speak; you can read a German book alone in the middle of the Sahara, if you so desire. Through reading you can cross the boundaries of time and space, completely at will. You can read from the day you start to study the language until the day you die. Reading is not dependent on being in a foreign country or speaking to a foreign person. Reading is independent, and reading is practical.

Now we come to the most practical consideration of all—money. I was taught German by the old, now partly discredited “reading-translation” method. That is, first we learned grammar, then we learned to read, translating from German to English. Great emphasis was placed on smooth translations. We turned long, complicated German sentences into neat, little English sentences, and were graded on our performances. Even when we came to “Faust,” we used the translation method. Nobody ever taught us to speak German.

I personally never tried to speak German until I came to Europe. Then I often had to choose between sign-language and German-speaking to make myself understood. With astonishing speed, all the reading I had done came to the rescue. The words I had read years before hung themselves on grammatical frames; true, it was clumsy at first. The time soon came, however, when German-speaking was one of my favorite hobbies. It still is.

Hobbies are not practical, however. Casting my eyes about for something more lucrative, I chanced to write to some large European firms, to ask if they needed someone to translate from German to English. Some of them did. I have been earning money every month translating letters, articles, and other writings from German to English. Many of my countrymen in Europe are doing the same thing with French, Italian, and Spanish, and earning good money.

In further investigations about the practical value of language learning, why not consider the possibilities of translation work? I don't know to what extent book companies or large corporations in America hire people for such jobs, but it should be interesting to find out.

My experiences make me wonder whether the present emphasis in America on speaking the foreign language rather than reading it is not a little impractical. Speaking is nice for soldiers and as a hobby, but reading gives permanent pleasure, and is a practical skill.

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Reviews

DAVIS, FRANK G., AND NORRIS, PEARLE S., *Guidance Handbook for Teachers*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949, pp. x+344. Price, \$3.50.

Guidance Handbook for Teachers is a "hand" book as the authors state in the Preface. The philosophy of caring for the needs of the individual pupil is very clearly presented by the authors. They outline a program and give many necessary tools for effective guidance work. Suggestions for doing three necessary things in a guidance program are given. They are: "getting the facts," "evaluating the facts," and "applying the facts."

The book was written from a psychological approach. Naturally much consideration was given to the problems of the individual teacher. Mental and physical health were considered. An attempt has been made to instill in school people an enthusiasm for the development of the personality of each pupil. Annotated Bibliographies, specific suggestions, questions, and problems have been included in each chapter. The most recent developments in guidance techniques and its practical tools have been given.

Each one of the first five chapters, "The Meaning of Guidance," "Meeting the Adjustment Needs of the Adolescent," "Guidance and Health," "The Homeroom," and "The Homeroom Teacher's Cumulative Pupil Personnel Record" is quite different from the usual way these data are presented. Each one is part of a case study. A discussion follows, conclusions are drawn, and suggestions are given.

In schools in which there are no counselors, schools in which the teacher is also the counselor, this book is a guide that each teacher will find very advantageous to have close at hand, on his working desk where it may be easily consulted for the many problems which are sure to arise. The twenty-nine chapters into which the book is divided give any teacher ready access to the material most pertinent at the time.

The homeroom has become the center of guidance activities in many schools. In truth, the effective homeroom is a "home away from home." It should be a setting conducive to frankness, friendliness, exploration, and experimentation. Joy springs from an understanding of and sympathy with the child in his daily round of living. Here children's needs and interests are recognized, and their confidence is summoned.

The authors have presented various ideas of organizing a homeroom. Some teachers prefer to keep it informal and have no organization, while others prefer to have standing committees with assigned duties. To help each child effectively, it is necessary for the teacher to keep some kind of record of the information that she gathers. Never must the keeping of records become cumbersome. With this in mind the authors have presented many tools, many forms to help the teacher assemble, with a minimum of clerical effort, significant data concerning each homeroom member.

Both the homeroom teacher's cumulative pupil personnel record and the classroom teacher's cumulative pupil personnel record as given are very good. In each chapter devoted to the two pupil personnel records we find a special sample page of each one. They are invaluable guides. The homeroom teacher's personnel record has other uses than that connected with pupils in difficulty. It is invaluable in numerous situations with pupils seeking help or with those who do not realize that they need help. This record really is as important as the records of the psychiatrist, or physician, or Army and Navy personnel departments. This record-folder may hold the student's personality rating sheet, health card, home-visit report, autobiography, questionnaires, extracurricular activities, hobbies, accomplishments, offices

held, vocational preference, profile, and the educational plan that each pupil should be expected to keep.

The classroom teacher's personnel record form is not large, yet it contains room for a wide variety of information. At the top the material is much the same obtained by the school census taker. The family information furnishes an excellent background for what follows. The family's economic status is indicated under "Occupation." "Health Handicaps" is a report giving main information in which a classroom teacher should be interested. Other items are "Home Conditions," "Cooperation with School," and "Type of Discipline." "Special Aptitudes and Accomplishments" will furnish valuable information. Much of this will provide a mental hygiene picture of the pupil. Another item "Test Results," including "Intelligence, Reading, and Achievement" provides at a glance a rough guess whether or not a pupil is living up to his capacity, and whether he may need diagnostic and remedial work in some subject. In this very well organized report blank, the classroom teacher has at hand an invaluable guide, for she is concerned about teaching the "whole child." An office clerk makes the copies that are distributed to each teacher who deals with the pupil in class or in an activity.

We have already mentioned the pupil's questionnaire, the autobiography, the home visit, the personality rating. To each one of these and many others as the capacity and achievement report, vocational guidance, and extracurricular activities, the authors have devoted one chapter in which they have discussed actual problems, actual homeroom situations, made valuable suggestions, and again supplied the key tools which are special sample pages for the teacher's immediate use.

"Tests and Measurements in Guidance" is a very valuable chapter in which the authors discuss the different philosophy of testing that has emerged in recent years. Tests become not ends in themselves but means to an end—means by which the curriculum can be made more meaningful, teaching more effective, and counseling more helpful. To the pupil tests do not become something to be dreaded, something to cause a sleepless night. Instead they are aids in the fulfillment of his highest possibilities. The values of both subjective and of objective tests are clearly stated. Various kinds of tests are named and discussed, such as the Binet-Simon Test, the Chicago Tests of Mental Abilities, prognostic personality tests, and achievement tests. Especially good is the explanation of the statistical tool—the "coefficient of correlation" which every teacher must understand. The virtues as well as the faults of a testing program are discussed.

Many good suggestions are given in the chapters on group counseling and on individual counseling. Principles and techniques are given, but also the authors have cited actual teacher-pupil counselling interviews. A sample interview record report is given.

Three forms are presented which are of great help to the pupil, the teacher, the parent. The forms help to identify problems and to act intelligently in relation to them. These are given much thought for the authors believe that the matter of matching ability and accomplishment is of vital importance. The forms are the scattergram, the capacity-achievement report, and the new report to the parents. A special sample page of each one is given. The forms are carefully explained, and also the importance of the picture.

Many more useful tools were presented and discussed in the chapters on "The Pupil's Plan Book," "Articulation," and "The Community and the Guidance Program."

A brief, yet very inclusive summary was given in the last chapter, "Evaluating the Guidance Program."

It was indeed a pleasure to find in *Guidance Handbook for Teachers* judicious discernment in the selection of the material and direct applications of indispensable rules.

We compliment the authors for their success in getting the publisher to give us a book which has a good quality of paper with readable type, and which is at the same time very compact and attractively bound.

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HALL, ROBERT A., JR., *Leave Your Language Alone!* Ithaca, N. Y.: Linguistica, 1950. Price, \$3.00.

Leave Your Language Alone! is really two books in one; it is (vii) "a tract addressed to the general public, in favor of a scientific attitude towards language," and also, though with no pretense to completeness, an elementary exposition of structural linguistics. The fusion of these two aspects—the propagandistic and the expository—is not completely successful.

Emphasizing the practical application of linguistic science to everyday problems, Professor Hall points out (247) that:

the principles that linguistics seeks to follow are the only ones that can help us to get a real understanding of what language is, what rôle it plays in our lives, and how we can use our knowledge of it in improving our living.

Seriously concerned with the misconceptions prevalent in the general public, the author makes it his main purpose (6) "to expose the fallacies of the folkloristic notions and of the school dogmas that stand in our way and block our understanding of language. . . ." In order to combat these fallacies and dogmas, Hall advances in Part I (Things We Worry About) a series of "basic principles" (6):

There is no such thing as good and bad (or correct and incorrect, grammatical and ungrammatical, right and wrong) in language.

There is no such thing as "written language." There is speech and there is writing; and of these two, speech is basic in human life and writing is a reflection of speech. Changing the writing is not changing the language.

A dictionary or grammar is not as good an authority for your speech as the way you yourself speak.

Words do not have any "real" meaning as opposed to other, "false" meanings. . . .

All languages and dialects are of equal merit, each in its own way.

When languages change, they do not "decay" or become "corrupted." . . .

The trained linguist can accept these principles as being essentially valid in theory; at least, he will know where to apply the proper cautions. The non-linguist, on the contrary, is at a disadvantage; in his practical application of these principles, he can develop misconceptions even more erroneous than those he is asked to shed. Hall asks, for example, (236):

What does it matter if someone says . . . *it's me*, . . . or splits an infinitive, or does one of the hundred other things the grammarian objects to but everyone does?

But the author has already declared in straightforward fashion (13): "If my child is likely to run into trouble later on for saying *I done it* or *him*, I will try to keep him from getting into the habit of using these forms. . . ." Correctly noting that (13) "the difference in social acceptability between *I ain't* and *I am not* . . . is a real fact," Hall properly shifts the problem of "correctness" (call it what you will!) from the linguistic to the sociological plane; by the same token, however, he has invalidated his first and third principles for all practical purposes.

Whether a student asks, "Is *I ain't* socially acceptable?" or "Is it correct?" the answer is inevitably the same. Border-line cases like *it's me*, on the other hand, can be handled easily and without terminological difficulties by competent grammarians (cf. Margaret M. Bryant, *Modern English and Its Heritage*, *It is me*, 217-18; split infinitive, 268-69, etc.). It would seem a far more desirable solution to arrange to have trained linguists write our grammars with suitably defined terminology than to await the fulfillment of Hall's engagingly unreal prophecy (238):

. . . we may look forward to the time . . . when a claim to dispensing "correct" speech will be treated as being equal in fraudulence to a claim to dispensing a cure-all in medicine . . . prosecutable under law. . . .

While we need not go into as great detail concerning the other principles, it should be noted that it is too great an over-simplification to say that "speech is basic . . . and writing is a reflection of speech." Sometimes the reverse is true; "spelling pronunciation," a not uncommon phenomenon, is an indication that speech can reflect writing. We may call this

hypercorrectness, but how can we challenge it if everyone is indeed his own best authority for the way he speaks?

In the expository section, Parts II (How Language Is Built) and III (Language in the World Around Us), the essence of language is described in a clear, elementary, and non-technical style. Basing himself on the work of Sapir, Bloomfield, Troubetzkoy, etc., Hall clarifies the principal aspects of structural linguistics. Viewing language as a system, he examines it from the point of view of sound, form, meaning, change, and geography and stresses the concept of the *phoneme*, which, as he points out (35) "is an important technical term, and just as essential in linguistics as *molecule* or *atom* are in chemistry, or *neutron* and *proton* in nuclear physics." Technical discussion, where relevant, has been introduced but has been put in smaller type as a convenience to the general reader who may wish to pass it by. In a way, this reveals the fundamental weakness of the book. Students already drawn to linguistics must look elsewhere for a serious introduction to the field; readers attracted primarily by the entertainment features ("Which Should I Say?" "Right vs. Wrong," "Marks You Make with Your Fist," etc.) will not find it easy to assimilate even the minimum presentation of linguistic science to be found in these pages.

Part IV (What We Can Do about Language) reverts to the practical. Hall deals cogently with important problems such as "Learning Your Own Language," "Learning Another Language," "One World, One Language," etc. Repeating his well-known views concerning the primacy of the spoken language and stressing concentration on everyday usage rather than on "grammar and reading," he makes the welcome suggestion that foreign language classes be allotted eight or ten hours a week, which is very fine—if, when and where it can be arranged. The discussion of an international language is thoughtful and provocative. The author, believing multilingualism to be a cultural asset, accepts with good grace the inevitably centrifugal nature of language. In spite of obvious, tangible benefits which might be derived from one world language, it appears to be true that (230):

To attain and keep linguistic unity, the whole human race would have to be much more capable of accepting and following rigid rules—in regard to all aspects of language: sounds, grammar, vocabulary, meanings, and even spelling—than they are or give any sign of becoming.

The usefulness of the book is enhanced by a short bibliography with explanatory comments where necessary. Listing the works in the order of ease for beginners, Hall recommends Sturtevant, Sapir and Bloomfield as basic, Jespersen, Vendryès and de Saussure as supplementary, for general linguistics; the Bloch and Trager outline is correctly termed "most difficult reading." Two recent popular books are mentioned, Hayakawa, *Language in Action* and Margaret Schlauch, *The Gift of Tongues*; to these might well be added the more recent and perhaps even more popular *Story of Language*, by Mario A. Pei. Several books by C. C. Fries on English are listed and one popularization, Bodmer's *Loom of Language*, is severely criticized.

To summarize: *Leave Your Language Alone!* is a forthright book with a bold point of view, embodied in its title. In a democratic society, the call to freedom of action, even freedom in the use of language, is exhilarating. Even in the most democratic of societies, however, the rights and duties of the individual are circumscribed by pressures serving the collective well-being; in practical linguistics, this means that the individual, who does not wish to speak to himself alone, must be fully aware of all the resources of language which he needs in order to function effectively in his environment. These resources (call them style, social acceptability, correctness) are not inherited in the blood stream or acquired in the years of infancy; they must be mastered after years of trial and error. *Leave Your Language Alone!* takes scientific linguistics as the basis on which to stimulate discussion and challenge our most cherished conceptions, preconceptions and misconceptions; the message is worth listening to, but we need not necessarily take it at full face value.

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HUEBNER, THEODORE, AND NEUSCHATZ, MARIE K., *Parlez-vous français*. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1949, pp. 511.

This revised edition of *Parlez-vous français* keeps all the good features of the earlier one and enhances its attractiveness by some additions. This textbook presents the material demanded by the syllabi of the larger school systems for the first year. Each lesson contains one new grammatical point, a vocabulary, a *lecture* based on vocabulary and grammar already learned, questions on the lecture, and different forms of exercises—completion, conjugation, and translation. The exercises are especially good and, in their various forms, offer opportunity for repetition without boredom for the pupil. Both teacher and student will be grateful that the conjugations of verbs in the interrogative and negative forms have been printed out completely in the six persons. The *lecture* presents a picture of French life of interest to school children. The vocabularies throughout the book include phonetic transcriptions, and a section on pronunciation and phonetics is given in the appendix. A review lesson at the end of each four or five chapters provides the additional repetition needed in a first-year class.

In this revised edition excellent photographs replace some pen-and-ink drawings, but the charming humorous sketches which illustrate the vocabulary of the first edition have been retained. The music as well as the words of French songs at the end of each lesson is a welcome addition. Most of the readings in civilization (in English) are the same except for changes necessary to give information on the present government of France. The words in the vocabulary of each lesson in the revised edition are listed alphabetically rather than by gender as they were in the first edition. *Parlez-vous français* is a complete and very attractive first-year text.

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BOURBOUSSON, EDOUARD, *Les Ecrivains de la Liberté*. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, Mass., 1949, pp. 316.

This anthology of selected writers of the French Resistance contains excerpts from the work of a wide variety of authors. It is not an anthology of "jeunes," for men of the stature of Georges Duhamel and François Mauriac are included in it, as well as Jean-Jacques Bernard and Jean Schlumberger. Other less-known Resistance authors included are Edith Thomas, Andrée Sikorska, and Gabriel Audisio. Professor Bourbousson begins with an excellent introduction in which he outlines the facts of the Resistance movement, and ends with short sketches of the various personalities he has included in his anthology. The book proper consists of well-chosen selections, each preceded by a short biography of the author and a bibliography of his works, all of which is followed by a French-English vocabulary.

Professor Bourbousson has shown great skill in bringing together material which, when read as an anthology, presents a most graphic picture of French life during the German occupation. The difficult winters in Paris with rationing and rutabagas, the devastation in the sections through which the war passed, the ugliness of the Vichy régime, the reaction of the French to the occupants, and the progress of the Resistance movement are all there. The French political life of the period is treated with great objectivity.

Emphasis is placed, and rightly so, on the rôle of French intellectuals and French intellectual life in general. Of particular interest, in this respect, are the selections from Jean Schlumberger's *Nouveaux Jalons*, for to quote Georges Duhamel from the portion of his *Chroniques* which Professor Bourbousson has seen fit to reproduce: "Nous savons que notre fortune est dans notre intelligence, au milieu de la ruine générale."

This reviewer would have preferred to choose an excerpt from *Le Silence de la Mer*, rather than from *La Marche à l'Etoile*, in presenting Vercors. However, Professor Bourbousson may have his own reasons for such a choice. The book is well printed, and only one typographical error was noted (Introduction, p. xxv, *Le Mystère Fontignac*, for *Le Mystère Frontenac*).

The book is strongly recommended for any French class beyond elements, whose teacher is desirous of acquainting students with what happened in France during the years 1940-1944.

LEO O. FORKEY

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PATTERSON, AUSTIN M., *A German-English Dictionary for Chemists*, third edition. John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, 1950. Price, \$5.00.

This work, which first appeared in 1917, is now ready in a new and greatly augmented third edition. It was compiled from an imposing list of lexicographical authorities, and recent German chemical literature has also been excerpted. Effort has been made to include all the common words of everyday life that are likely to occur in chemical literature. The inclusion of older chemical terms no longer used will be particularly helpful to students of the history of chemistry. The introduction contains in six pages a large amount of useful information and advice on the problems of German chemical nomenclature. The vocabulary is by no means limited to exclusively chemical terms, and includes many words special to the related sciences, physical and biological. A large number of abbreviations are included alphabetically in the vocabulary, which are necessary even for the advanced student. Since bibliographical abbreviations are particularly baffling to the American student, and only the most common of these have been included in this book, a list of the abbreviations for the more important reference works, periodicals and series would be a desirable addition. I mention this only because every other possible consideration for the student seems to have been taken.

F. WHITESELL

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R. -M. S. HEFFNER, HELMUT REHDER AND W. F. TWADDELL, *Goethe's Faust. A Complete German-English Vocabulary*. D. C. Heath and Co., Boston, 1950. Price, \$1.60.

It is strange that the greatest masterpiece of German literature should be one of the last to be supplied with a German-English vocabulary, particularly strange when we consider that many lesser works have been edited with vocabularies several times over. In the past, the student who read *Faust* in the original did so only in the fourth year of his study of German at the college level, and even then had his troubles with archaic and dialect words and meanings. This new book should go a long way toward making *Faust* accessible to the modern student whose curriculum seldom allows four years for the study of German. At present nearly all students who read *Faust* in the original German are majoring in the study of German, and their number is small. It is clear that something must be done if this important document of western culture is to survive as an active factor in education. Now, thanks to the efforts of Messrs Heffner, Rehder and Twaddell, *Faust* can be read by most students of German at the third year college level, and in the case of more mature students, even in the second year.

The authors of the *Faust Vocabulary* have done a careful and thorough piece of work, basing it on the *Wortindex zu Goethes Faust* (Madison, 1940), and checking the definitions against each occurrence of the word in the text. Where uncertainty or confusion could arise, line numbers are given. Brief explanatory notes clarify references to literature, folklore and history. Grammatical data—plural forms and verb tenses—are limited to the forms occurring in *Faust*. It is a solid and useful piece of scholarship, and the most remarkable thing about it is that it was not done fifty years ago. Certainly the welcome that has waited so long will be none the less warm, particularly since it is soon to be followed by a new *Faust* edition, consisting of Introduction, text and notes by the same collaborators.

F. R. WHITESELL

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R-M. S. HEFFNER AND W. P. LEHMANN, *A Word-Index to the poems of Walther von der Vogelweide*, second edition. Madison, The University of Wisconsin Press, 1950.

The Word-Index to the Poems of Walther von der Vogelweide in the original mimeographed edition has been unavailable for several years, and it is now again accessible in a corrected lithoprint edition. It is a parsed index, the next thing to a complete dictionary of Walther's poems, and as such it will be of great service both for the beginner in Middle High German who prefers thorough knowledge to comfortable paraphrases, and to the experienced scholar, whether he is working on problems of stylistic analysis or a study of Walther's relation to art, religion, society &c. The parsing is in effect a commentary, for often enough the meaning of a passage depends upon an ambiguous form. The addition of an asterisk or some similar sign to the reference number to indicate a rhyme-word would add to the usefulness of the Index, and for beginners the circumflex accent over long vowels might be helpful. The 1936 edition of Walter's poems by Carl von Kraus is the basis for the Index, and the authors have proceeded in a thoroughly conservative way, indexing also the *unechte Lieder* as well as the lines that Lachmann relegated to his notes, so that whatever the status of a reading at any time in the history of Walther-scholarship, it can be readily located in the Index.

The Word-Index to the poems of Walther is a valuable tool for research and reference, and together with the parsed Word-Index to des Minnesangs Frühling by Heffner and Petersen (Madison, 1942) and the Word-Index to Wolfram's Parzival by Senn and Lehmann (Madison, 1938), which is not parsed, constitutes an important addition to Middle High German lexicography. A Word-Index to Gottfried's Tristan by Melvin Valk of the University of Florida is in preparation: may it soon appear in print!

F. R. WHITESSELL

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COSMO, UMBERTO, *A Handbook to Dante Studies*. Translated by David Moore, Oxford, Basil Blackwell, 1950. (Barnes and Roble, New York.)

This book is surrounded by the reverence and love that are felt for great scholars and teachers by their pupils and disciples. Cosmo left to them in this work a rich patrimony of research, knowledge, and understanding in the field of Dante studies. After the author's death, one of his pupils, Felice Arese, painstakingly revised the present handbook, and one of his disciples, David Moore, has now carefully and, on the whole, competently, translated it into English. Only here and there, the translation makes one hope that greater clarity had been achieved.

In its general lines, the book is a bibliographical guide. As such, it serves a very useful purpose since it brings up to date Dante bibliography. But the value of the present handbook transcends the field of bibliography and veers towards that of real criticism, since it reflects the sincerity, seriousness, and closeness to life that characterized the scholarship of Umberto Cosmo. The book presents Dante as a living person and illumines the various aspects of the poet's life, thought, and poetry. For, in Umberto Cosmo's idea of criticism, the life and thought of Dante are the main threads out of which his poetry is woven. Hence, the reader, after a thorough survey of general aids (Chapter I) is led to consider Dante's youth (Chapter III), his political life (Chapter VI) and his exile (Chapter VII). The reader is also shown how from the bitter experience of life in exile grew the various works that Dante left to us. These are studied in different chapters. The *Convivio* is studied in Chapter VIII, the *De Vulgaria Eloquentia* in Chapter IX, the *De Monarchia* in Chapter XI. To the *Divina Commedia* are dedicated the last two chapters. The method of correlating the works of Dante and his life, as reconstructed by critics and especially by Cosmo in his *Vita di Dante* (1930), creates an integrated method that leads to a living approach to the study of the great poet. As an example, no other critic has studied Dante's experience and theory of love with the penetration

and sensitivity that Umberto Cosmo has revealed in the pages dedicated to it. Cosmo used research not as an end to itself, but as a means to an end—the understanding of Dante.

The study of Dante's mind and works is presented in the form of "problems" arising from Dante criticism. Hence, the author is more interested in a broad view of the problem than in listing every item written on the subject. As a result, books that many a reader would expect to be mentioned are not to be found in the handbook. Papini's contribution, for instance, is not considered at all. Omissions of this kind do not detract from the value of the present work that remains a most important guide to a thorough and living understanding of Dante the man and the poet.

DOMENICO VITTORINI

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VEGA CARPIO, FÉLIX LOPE DE, *Fuenteovejuna*. Edited with Introduction and vocabulary by William Smith Mitchell, London, G. Bell and Sons, 1948.

The hardest of textbooks to make for the undergraduate student of Spanish literature is that in the Golden Age *comedia*. When it is done well, it is all the more to be appreciated because of the unusual care its editor must have given his task. When done less than well, it is usually quite poor indeed. Teachers would welcome for their undergraduate classes an adequate textbook edition of Lope's famous *Fuenteovejuna*, with helpful and accurate *Notes* and a carefully constructed *Vocabulary*. Unfortunately, the present edition cannot be considered as adequate in these regards. Its introductory material is, indeed, quite satisfactory on the whole: the section on the life and works of Lope, that on the Spanish stage of Lope's time the historical background. Its text may, or may not, be acceptable according to the best authority of the play's earlier editions: the reviewer did not investigate this feature. But some doubt may, not unfairly, be cast on the text's accuracy by the editor's carelessness in other features of his edition. His *Bibliography*, for example, is defective on several counts. He fails, for instance, to list a number of editions of the play and he seems to be completely unaware of Mr. Anibal's significant studies on it. The other major features of the editorial apparatus, the *Notes* and the *Vocabulary*, are notably inferior, and it is these features which the student must depend on for the line-by-line interpretation and illumination of the *comedia's* text. There are all too few *Notes*; it is probable that the high cost of printing was a major factor in reducing their number. Again, too many *Notes* are inaccurate. Note 7, for example, should read 'even though' rather than 'if'. 179 is an error: *Alguna* is not 'no one', but, freely, 'one or another' (lines 179–180 translate: "I, Laurencia, have seen one girl or another just as independent as you, and I think even more so"). 214 leads to a misinterpretation of Pascuala's scoffing and ironic remark. *Quistion* as 'torture' in 436 is in error. At 529, add *vencedore* (of line 12 of the song) to *Commendadore*; *vencedore* has no *Vocabulary* entry and is left unprovided for. 599 needs recasting. 680 should read 'if F. G. had not given him'. In Act II, lines 150–151 need a note or a different punctuation or perhaps a recasting of the textual reading. *Galván* (318) is a well-known name of the time and should have identification. *Norabuena* (772) translates better as 'by all means': the *Note* is of course correct in saying the word is used ironically. At 783 the *Note* in syntax needs revision. In Act III, Note 29 makes no sense without further explanation. 71 needs recasting. *Cuando* (255) is 'even if.' *Echa* of 611 is meant as an imperative. The use of *tener* plus past participle (655) deserves a more accurate *Note*; *tener* is really not the complete equivalent of *haber*.

A still greater lack of adequacy is betrayed by the *Vocabulary*. Since there is no statement to the contrary, we assume the *Vocabulary* is meant to be complete. We assume also that a well-constructed *Vocabulary* should offer an entirely accurate interpretation of the words and locutions of its text; if it is to afford only the usual dictionary meanings of the terms, it is worse than useless; it is often misleading. The present *Vocabulary* falls short of the ideal lexicon

by a wide margin. A random checking of its items for the first Act only reveals so many lapses of omission and commission that one is forced to conclude that the entire *Vocabulary* is in need of revision. *Mas que* of line 173 has no *Vocabulary* entry (nor has *dura* of 215). Other random items that need entry or a different interpretation are *brava* (180), *salpicòn* (237), *buboso* (313), *moscatel* (334), *pariente* (447), *de a caballo* (462), *echaréis* (613), *haber as 'to be'* (635, 695), *ganar por la mano* (638), *de* (691), *Córdoba* (711), *a medio torcer* (722), *nos traen sobre ojo* (729), *cuidad* (749), *¡Viven los cielos!* (764), *huyas* (796), *teniéndome . . . en tan poco* (797), *mal haya* (832), *de plus infinitive* (as at 834), *caza* (835), *me corro* (858).

The printer's arrangement of the play's lines on the page is quite unacceptable. The pattern by which the lines are frequently made to look to the eye like lines of prose is disconcerting. It is not purely by an arbitrary choice that modern editors of the *comedia* have agreed on a more or less standard type of line arrangement. It is a pattern developed by experience as the most helpful to the reader. This pattern should have been followed in the present text. This would have meant on page 41, for example, that the names of the speakers should appear entirely outside of the left margin of the lines of poetry. It would have meant also that the first line of each *redondilla* would receive an indentation to help make clear the type of verse Lope was using. On succeeding pages, the same printing pattern should have been followed regardless of the type of verse or the length of the line employed by the poet; the one change that might occasionally have been necessary would be the placing of the characters' names between the speeches instead of in the left margin. Inept printing has caused an occasional awkwardness that was easily avoidable: see, for example, the first line of page 61: *Si entraren, Ortuño, tierra* is one complete eight-syllabled line of its *redondilla*. *Señor* of line 545 (p. 90) should be printed to the extreme right, since it is the last word of the last line of the preceding page.

On the whole, the editor's consideration of versification (pp. 37-38) is acceptable (598 of p. 37, fifth line from the bottom, should read 589). He correctly points out certain missing lines (the printer's arrangement of line 612 of Act III does not hint at the lacuna there; suspensive points should precede *Ya va*). But he fails to record missing lines at Act I, 345-347, where a *redondilla* line in *-asta* is wanting, and in Act II where a line rhyming in *-ado* is lacking between verses 69 and 70. Rather than *endeckas* for 528-543 (also 590-593) of I, the term *letra para cantar romancillos* would seem preferable; the same term would apply to II, 612-614; III, 377-379, 384-391; 396-405; 410-417. Since II, 642-648 is a song, the words should have been italicized, the label for the passage might be *letra para cantar* (Fronadoso calls it a *copla* in 640-641), and the last line of page 37 can be omitted. Similarly, III, 384-391, 396-402, 410-416 should be in italics. The editor's correct definition (p. 35) of *tercelto* is violated following III, 6, where there is a break in the proper rhyme.

Editorial care in helping keep track of the characters' entrance and exits is manifest, but *Vance* should be added to line 611 of Act II and 638 of III. One feature that most North American students of the *comedia* will dislike is the numbering of the play's lines Act by Act rather than without a break throughout the entire *comedia*. The unbroken numbering is much more convenient, especially for the consultation of the *Notes*.

On the whole, one must regretfully conclude that the text is not done well enough to meet the standards for an acceptable textbook of the *comedia*. A good textbook edition of *Fuenteovejuna* for the undergraduate student still remains to be done.

GERALD E. WADE

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LARRA, MARIANO JOSÈ DE, *Artículos escogidos*. Edited by D. Marín Molina. G. Bell & Sons Ltd., London, England, 1948, pp. vii+199. Price, 4/6d.

This pocket-sized volume from overseas arrived a bit late for review, as the publication date will indicate; but it deserves mention, notwithstanding. The Foreword states that the book "aims at presenting a representative selection of Larra's essays which may be useful both

to Secondary School and University students." Rather generously equipped with Introduction, Bibliography, Notes, and Vocabulary, these selected essays should prove understandable to the wide range of students for whom the edition was designed.

The Introduction takes up "Historical Background," "The State of Literature," "Biographical Sketch," "Larra's Works," (with sub-divisions treating "Poetry," "Fiction," "Drama," and "Criticism"), and "Larra's Significance and Influence." The text proper includes the following eight essays: "Carta a Andrés," "El castellano viejo," "Vuelva usted mañana," "Una primera representación," "La fonda nueva," "¿Entre qué gentes estamos?" "Los tres no son más que dos," and "Día de difuntos de 1836." These selections should be representative enough to satisfy the majority of students and teachers.

The format of *Artículos escogidos* is attractive, and the scholarship involved in editing the volume appears adequate. Editor and publisher have collaborated to turn out what should be a very usable textbook.

ROBERT AVRETT

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FERNÁNDEZ, PEDRO VILLA, *Del Camino*, Henry Holt and Co., New York, 1950, pp. 208, iii-xiviii. Price \$2.20.

The richly deserved success of *Por Esas Españas* has led Mr. Fernández and his illustrator, Shum, to venture into the field with another reader, this time entitled *Del Camino*. It is a pleasure to record that he has rung the bell again. The kindly irony, good humor and authentic atmosphere of his sketches will undoubtedly captivate teachers as they will delight students. There is more "civilization" here than in an almanac full of statistics. We follow the progress of an "atomic bomb" in Yucatán, the sentiments of a tired school teacher, and the success of a youngster who turns public stenographer, to mention but a few. Decidedly, this is fresh and new material, and its very existence ought to inspire a whole new line of Spanish texts, for with this book available who will read a dull one?

The exercises are carefully worked out and form an integral part of the book. They may be skipped, as they so frequently are, by the teacher who is impatient of prepared questions and supplementary material offered in the average reader, but if they are used they will undoubtedly contribute to the knowledge of Spanish which is the supposed object of our elementary course. The vocabulary, although not based on word counts, has its roots in the common sense of Mr. Fernández, which seems to be uncommonly shrewd.

The format of the book is attractive and the type is readable, even elegant.

L. CLARK KEATING

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